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ABSTRACT

This is a report of a three-year demonstration and research project which addressed itself to three objectives: (1) To explore the need for planned, long-term foster family care for minority children as one of the services to be made available by a multiple child welfare services program in a public agency. (2) To assess the readiness of seniors majoring in an undergraduate social work curriculum to provide direct child welfare services, given certain training conditions and educational requirements. (3) To design a model for a child welfare services delivery system in a public agency that will make multiple high quality child welfare services available and accessible to children in need of them. This study was conducted in San Mateo County. A survey of all children in foster care in the county was undertaken. For the 49 foster children served directly in this project, detailed research schedules were prepared to allow for systematic information gathering about them and their parents. Assessment of readiness for professional practice of project students involved several procedures. To develop a new delivery model for child welfare services, the relevant professional literature was reviewed by social work and management specialists affiliated with the project. (Author/JM)

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New Perspectives on
CHILD WELFARE

▲ Services

▲ Staffing

▲ Delivery System

by

● Bernice Q. Madison and Michael Schapiro

● in collaboration with
Bernard Kahn; A.D. Kuperstein and
Paul Weinberger

San Francisco 1973

UD 014 855

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This report
is dedicated to
HELEN ROWAN
who wanted all children
to have a beautiful life

The Foster Family Care Project
has been made possible
through
the Foresight and Generous Support
of the

ROSENBERG AND SAN FRANCISCO FOUNDATIONS
and
CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, SAN FRANCISCO

In cooperation with

San Mateo Department of Public Health and Welfare
and
San Mateo Probation Department

◆

The Project Staff:

Michael Schapiro, Executive Director
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In most acknowledgments it is usually noted that the author(s) owes a debt of gratitude to so many people that he cannot begin to name them all. This is not the case with the Project reported on here--the persons and organizations who were helpful, while quite numerous, can all be named and the areas of their assistance indicated.

First, it is a genuine pleasure to acknowledge the generous and consistent support of the Rosenberg and the San Francisco Foundations. Without it the Project could not have been undertaken or carried through. Not only are we grateful for the funds which they made available, but we also wish to emphasize that we benefited enormously from discussions with their staff members--especially from those with Ruth Chance, the Executive Director of the Rosenberg Foundation. These wide-ranging and detailed explorations clarified our thinking, widened our horizons, and inspired us to strive for excellence through constructive self-criticism.

Next, we wish to thank the California State University at San Francisco, and especially Dr. Harold L. Einhorn, Associate Vice President, Academic Affairs, for approving our proposal and thus committing the University to financial participation in the Project. Our colleagues in the Department of Social Work Education--Seaton Manning, Morgan Yamanaka, and Dr. Phyllis Rochelle--were helpful in incorporating the teaching aspects of the Project into the undergraduate field work program. We are also happy to thank the Frederic Burk Foundation for Education, and especially its director Dr. Lawrence Eisenberg, for technical assistance in drawing up our proposal, and for helping us to maintain our accounts and financial reports in good order.

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6. In Maryland

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Throughout the Project we were fortunate to have a highly competent hard-working, and dedicated staff. Not only did they fulfill their respective responsibilities, but they did so on time, with a delightful sense of humor, and with an unfailing willingness to rethink and redo. Jacqueline Smith, student supervisor, and Anne Leonard, administrative assistant, became full-time members of the staff at the inception of the Project, in September and October of 1970, respectively. The services of Paul Weinberger, DSW, as research consultant to the Project, were secured in the fall of 1970. Bernard Kahn, as management consultant to the Project was engaged in the fall of 1971, and A.D. Kuperstein, in a similar capacity, in the spring of 1972. In addition, the Project was able to secure the services of Marjorie Hurwitz as a part-time student supervisor. It should be noted that all of the above, together with the director and the principal consultant, participated in all decisions concerning all aspects of our undertaking throughout the life of the Project. Likewise, the final Report was read and criticized by the entire group. Within the framework of this team approach, each member was assigned special responsibilities.

Dr. Weinberger was responsible for the technical aspects of research. He constructed and pretested all of the research instruments used, such as schedules for the survey of children in foster care in San Mateo County and questionnaires administered to students. He processed and analyzed the results of the original data secured through these research instruments, and he discussed in writing their meaning and significance in relation to the objectives of the Project. Among his major contributions in the body of this Report are those incorporated into the "Study Plan," "San Mateo Children in Foster Family Care," "Students in the Project," and "Evaluation of Services Provided by Students."

Bernard Kahn and A. D. Kuperstein were responsible for developing the service delivery model, specifically the material appearing in Chapters 8, 9 and Appendix B of this Report. This portion of the Project involved comprehensive analysis of current literature pertaining to the management of social welfare activities, and application of management concepts and technology in designing a model for effective delivery of child welfare services. In addition, these management consultants conceived and developed the charts contained in the Report.

One other person added significantly to the materials produced by the Project: Hazel Bearss, former director, Family and Children's Services, Contra Costa County (California) Department of Social Services. She analyzed 22 diagnostic summaries prepared by our students, in relation to criteria she established in consultation with experienced child welfare workers, in order to indicate the level of skill attained by the students in the Project in serving the children and their natural and foster parents.

Michael Schapiro, as director of the Project, and Bernice Madison, Ph.D., its principal consultant, had joint responsibility for producing the original proposal, securing funding, establishing all necessary working relationships, hiring staff, directing the entire undertaking, visiting all the selected state and voluntary agencies, and writing the final versions of all of the reports. In addition, Mr. Schapiro taught the weekly two-hour seminar required of all social work majors to the students placed with the Project throughout its two active years.

Michael Schapiro, Director
Bernice Madison, Principal Consultant
California State University-San Francisco

September, 1973

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*

the ROAD AHEAD for BETTER CHILD

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Objectives	Findings
I EXPLORE NEED FOR PLANNED LONG–TERM FOSTER FAMILY CARE FOR MINORITY CHILDREN	1. Most children require foster family care because of damaged family relationships aggravated by economic and health problems. 2. Among young foster children, the percentage of blacks is disproportionately high, and is likely to remain so. 3. Foster family care increasingly is becoming long-term care, yet its use on a planned basis remains hesitant and scattered. 4. Failure to accomplish early planning and prompt but sound decision-making weakens constructive services. 5. Planned long-term care will continue to be needed by half of foster children.
II ASSESS READINESS OF CANDIDATES FOR BA DEGREES IN SOCIAL WORK FOR PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE	1. Undergraduates are academically average and their stated motivations for becoming social workers vary widely. Those with higher grade point averages are generally more likely to become ready for professional practice. 2. Undergraduate social work students, compared with graduate students, do not differ in social work values but have less social work knowledge. (Differences in practice skills are unclear because of differences in grading practices.) 3. Professional readiness of many students is hampered by lack of basic skills--mainly oral and written communication. 4. At completion of BA social work curriculum, only 36% of students are ready for professional practice, 28% possess potential with added field work experience, and 36% have no potential.
III DESIGN A MODEL TO IMPROVE CHILD WELFARE SERVICES DELIVERY SYSTEMS	1. The key issues in delivery of child welfare services are: a. Need to improve organizational structure and relationships. b. Need for accessibility and availability of services. c. Duplicating and overlapping services. d. Continuity and flow of services. e. Need for involvement of the community in services. f. Manpower utilization. 2. For effective manpower utilization, the use of social work teams promises the best results.

ELFARE SERVICES

Chart 1-1

Implications

Planned long-term foster family care must become an integral part of multiple child welfare services

1. Grade point average seems to have the greatest predictive value in assessing student potential for social work.

2. Increasing field work instruction is likely to increase the percentage of undergraduates adequately prepared to enter professional practice. Student learning towards professional competence would be enhanced by a goal-oriented philosophy and broadly based "specialist" orientation.

3. Students must possess basic skills before entering social work studies.

4. Social work professionals and the educational system must place more emphasis on who is competent to enter the profession ("gate keeping").

1. Current child welfare services delivery problems can be substantially reduced by employing modern, dynamic management techniques. Undergraduate social work education must incorporate basic knowledge of management concepts concerning the effective use of resources in service delivery systems.

2. The Team Model of manpower utilization is likely to bring about significant improvements in quality of services, and increases in caseload capacity.

what must be done

- **CHILD WELFARE AGENCIES** must strengthen and expand their services to assure that all of the needs of the individual child are met---this implies expansion of multi-service programs.
- **UNDERGRADUATE SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION** must reassess its objectives and standards if it is to produce professionals. Professional skills must include ability to work productively in team organizations.
- **THE SOCIAL WORK TEAM CONCEPT,** incorporating different skill levels, offers significant improvements in service delivery systems. Child welfare agencies must plan to test this concept.
- **CHILD WELFARE DELIVERY SYSTEMS** must incorporate modern management techniques and more efficient organizational structure to make effective use of resources.

Chapter 1

OBJECTIVES OF THE PROJECT

Initially, the Project was designed to address two areas of concern in the provision of child welfare services: the part that can and should be played by what has come to be called "long-term or permanent" foster family care, and the part that can and should be played in providing this and other types of child welfare services by holders of baccalaureate degrees in social work. Our first nine months of experience with the Project led us to realize that a third area of study should be added--analysis of the delivery system for child welfare services. We became convinced that the results of our undertaking would be more meaningful and usable if our design incorporated the concept that services, staff and delivery systems are inextricably interrelated, with each decisively influenced by the other two in carrying out its individual function. Through a process of refinement, expansion and redefinition of Project goals we eventually sought to arrive at an integrated approach for providing improved services for children--one which could be tested in the field.

OBJECTIVES AND THEIR SIGNIFICANCE

1. To explore the need for planned long-term foster family care for minority children as one of the services to be made available by a multiple child welfare services program in a public agency.

Foster family care was selected not only because it has become the single largest child welfare program for children living outside their own homes,* employing a large proportion of child welfare workers, but also because it is at present subject to increasing questioning, apparently more so than some other

---

* The role of foster care in the total network of services provided for children is illustrated by the following statistics in 1969: "the 694,000 children served by public welfare agencies were about equally divided between those living with parents or relatives (342,000), and those living apart from relatives (352,000). Of the 352,000 who lived apart from relatives, almost two-thirds (226,000) were in foster family homes or group homes, about 18 percent (nearly 63,000) in institutions, and about 13 percent (45,000) in adoptive homes." (173:1)

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child welfare service programs. Especially in question is the fact that many foster children find themselves in limbo; that is, in long-term care which has been protracted by default rather than be design, for the most part because of the unrealized hope that the child would be returned to his own home or placed in an adoptive home. For many children, however, adoption is not available. In some instances the parents' reluctance to surrender guardianship precludes adoption, despite the unlikelihood of their being able to resume care of the child. This reluctance often is prolonged by the widespread reluctance of judges to sever parental rights. In other cases, the child's ethnicity, age, physical handicap, or emotional disorder make it difficult to find a suitable adoptive home. As for returning children to their own homes, such homes often do not, in fact, exist or, if they do, continue to be unsuitable. In summary, long-term foster family care reflects some of the cumulative unresolved difficulties faced in the child welfare field. In this context, planned, long-term care may be the best solution for some children.

During the last decade increasing efforts have been made by child welfare agencies to provide such care for selected children (116;157). One step has been to offer long-term care on a planned basis, rather than as an unplanned outcome of placement, so that the insecure nature of the foster child-parent relationship virtually is eliminated. Other steps include: payment for foster care service to underscore the importance of the foster parent role; emphasis on permanency so as to eliminate the uncertainty for foster parents and foster child that the presumed temporary nature of foster care implies; and clarification of foster parent-agency roles to strengthen the parental role of the foster parents, while they retain the counsel and help of the agency in coping with problems encountered (73). Unlike some states, California has not addressed itself to the limbo problem as a policy issue in child welfare. For this reason, carrying out the Project in a California county was considered particularly appropriate. There has been no organized effort to determine to what extent the problem exists among California's 33,500 foster children; nor has there been any concerted action to deal with it in line with the best thinking in the field in instances when its presence is clearly recognized.

The Project focused its attention on minority children, not because white children do not experience limbo, but because relatively more of the nonwhite children experience a lack of suitable placement opportunities, as well as other kinds of social services they require.

A public agency was chosen because at present most foster family care is provided either directly by public agencies or is subsidized by them when the actual placement is made by voluntary agencies.* Also, public agencies are the largest employers of child welfare workers. That this condition is likely to continue is suggested by the continuing participation of the federal government in child welfare planning. This does not mean, of course, that findings and suggestions applicable to public agencies have no utility for voluntary agencies--and vice versa.

We believed that a program in question, one that is both a determiner and an end result of changing child welfare philosophy and practice, would offer students a uniquely challenging learning experience--an experience called for by the second objective of this Project.

---

* Of the 859,000 children served by public and voluntary agencies and institutions in 1969, three-fourths were served by public agencies and institutions only, and 6% by both a public and a voluntary agency or institution. (173)

II. To assess the readiness of seniors majoring in an undergraduate social work curriculum to provide direct child welfare services, given certain training conditions and educational requirements.

For many years differences of view characterized the discussion as to whether the baccalaureate rather than the master's degree should be the first professional degree in social work. As a profession, social work in the United States has grown from the top down with the traditional pattern of training beginning with the master's degree. In April 1970, however, the Council on Social Work Education established new standards for undergraduate social work departments which sought constituent membership in the Council. The major innovation was that schools seeking such membership may certify only "students who have completed appropriate educationally directed field experience with direct engagement in service activities which is an integral part of the program." Effectively, this means that the undergraduate social work program now provides the first level of professional education since it is currently designed to prepare practicing social workers.

In the same year, the National Association of Social Workers established a regular membership category for "persons holding a bachelor's degree with an undergraduate sequence in social work that meets criteria established by the Council on Social Work Education." This validated the bachelor's degree as the entry level for professional practice. In July 1972, baccalaureate degree holders were given full voting privileges. In March 1973, the House of Delegates endorsed the Council's "Proposed Standards for the Evaluation of Undergraduate Programs in Social Work" (effective July 1, 1974) which require that "Preparation for beginning social work practice must be a stated educational objective of an undergraduate social work program." (41) The implementation of these new directions points to the need for change in thinking among social work practitioners and a continuing exploration by social work educators of what should constitute the basic elements of the undergraduate curriculum. Furthermore, these basic elements must be developed within a framework of general consensus about the role that the undergraduate curriculum ought to play in the future, as well as now.

Important in this connection is the effort to delineate the tasks that can be successfully performed by holders of baccalaureate degrees, to indicate the skill levels they can attain, and to describe the educational requirements and training conditions which maximize successful performance (137). It is essential as well to know what kinds of students come into the undergraduate curriculum since such knowledge helps to achieve their optimum participation in learning. It is to these areas that this Project addresses itself: its activities were designed as a setting for testing the capacity of undergraduate social work majors to render effective professional services in child welfare.

The specific undergraduate curriculum to which the Project related itself and from which it received its students was that offered at the California State University, San Francisco (hereafter referred to as "San Francisco".) The undergraduate social work program at this institution has been in existence since the 1930s, has been under continuous faculty-student review since 1952, and has been recognized as a promising and innovative program nationally. In May 1972, it was teaching 305 students, almost half of them nonwhite. The program's requirement of direct service experience as part of the field work training each student has to complete, initiated long before it was attempted on an appreciable scale at other schools, was perhaps one of its most unique contributions to social work education. The undergraduate department has been a member of the Council on Social Work Education since the early 1950s; in December 1971, shortly after the Council's 1970 standards for undergraduate curricula came into effect, the department applied for approval and received it in February 1972 for three years--the maximum for which approvals are granted.

Next for discussion, is the third objective of the Project:

III. To design a model for a child welfare services delivery system in a public agency that will make multiple high-quality child welfare services available and accessible to children in need of them.

During the past decade an almost unprecedented amount of critical attention has been directed toward delivery systems in human services. Agreement is universal that these systems can and often do act as obstacles rather than facilitators in efforts to provide quality services in both public and voluntary agencies, frequently minimizing rather than maximizing what the service delivery staff can do. Materials are available in the literature on the basic philosophy and principles that ought to govern the provision of comprehensive child welfare services (38). A considerable amount of work also has been done on models for the overall structure and organization of public social services (17). But we have not been able to find any inclusive exploration focused on an optimum service delivery system concerned specifically with child welfare. Particularly scant are materials that would help integrate relevant concepts from business administration, the social sciences, and modern technology into such a delivery system. It is widely known that in child welfare, as in public welfare in general, modern management techniques are much less frequently used than they are in other organizations of comparable size, both public and private. There is little doubt that it is important to utilize modern, dynamic management techniques to improve services to children rather than allow these potentially powerful tools to be ignored or to be utilized ineffectively. Bureaucratic, inadequate and ineffective management and administration tend to dehumanize social services. We wished therefore to broaden the knowledge base of social work administration by conscious use of persons from other disciplines and with different theoretical orientations to administrative issues. We hoped that consultants with backgrounds in management techniques, working in close harmony with professional social workers, would be able to create a model that embodies the desired integration and would thereby help clarify and improve the functioning of child welfare services.

Thus, we believe that our three objectives simultaneously center on an important problem area in the provision of child welfare services at the present stage of development; on several important problems in educating undergraduates for providing direct child welfare services in line with the professional role they are now expected to play; and on the crucial problem of creating a services delivery system that would utilize modern management techniques to the advantage of children who need social services. In our view, the very fact of seeing services, staff and delivery system as one living and dynamic whole adds a special value to our undertaking: it is the interrelatedness of these three elements, and not only their separate and distinct features, that enters into reality in terms of actual implementation.

WHAT THE PROJECT DID NOT INTEND TO ACHIEVE

To clarify further what this Project was designed to accomplish, it may be useful to indicate what the Project did not intend to accomplish.

In relation to the first objective, the Project did not intend to explore either the conditions that bring children into foster care or the ways of avoiding unnecessary separations of children from parents. This has already been done (75). Replication of this kind of research was clearly outside the scope of our objectives. Neither did we intend to gain new or additional knowledge, or to test already existing knowledge, relating to *how* to offer foster care or *how* to find the needed number of foster homes. Social work methods as they impinge on foster care are being continuously reexamined and hopefully made more effective by a host of competent researchers and practitioners (91).

We must stress also that it was not our purpose to prove or disprove the efficacy of long-term foster family care, as compared either with other kinds of foster care, or with other kinds of child welfare services. Instead, our Project took as its point of departure the assumption that foster care is likely to continue to exist and to be used by significantly large numbers of children in the foreseeable future. While it is obvious that the entire society must strive to decrease the need for all kinds of substitute arrangements for children, we felt that it is not realistic to think that this goal can be achieved completely or soon enough to be of help to children who find themselves in need of such arrangements now.*

In relation to the second objective, it was not our intent to compare the performance of those studying for their baccalaureate degrees with the performance of master's degree holders in the agencies which cooperated with us. We accepted the position that social work's need at present is for different levels of skill and we assumed that those professionals with more education would have better skills.

We also wish to emphasize that no appraisal was made by us of the standard of social work in the two county departments from which we received our cases, and in which our students carried out their field work activities. Consequently, no statements in this Report should be construed to imply such an appraisal.

In relation to the third objective, we did not intend to create a delivery model for the entire range of services being offered by or being sought from public welfare agencies. That kind of model, we believe, requires large-scale inter-governmental and inter-agency exploration which, fortunately, is being undertaken and will undoubtedly continue to claim serious attention.* It was clearly outside the limits of our Project. We realize, of course, that if the model we have produced is to be implemented, it would need to be integrated into the overall administrative structure of the agency using it. Internal agency coordination might require certain modifications in the model. For this reason we indicate how such coordination may best be achieved. Given the appropriate modifications, we do claim that our model will be relevant to all county departments of public welfare in the country.

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* It should be added perhaps that it is not at all clear that "restructuring" the society, in the direction of a socialist orientation for example, will result in eliminating or even diminishing children's need for substitute care (114).

Given the limitations and shortcomings which will be discussed in the next chapter, it is nevertheless our view that the Project accomplished most of what it set out to do. We hope, therefore, that it will make a contribution to the extension and improvement of child welfare services in our fast-changing society. We believe that the opportunity for enriching the lives of children through improved services is especially promising at this stage in the development of public welfare. The separation of income maintenance activities from social services and the transfer of adult categorical assistance programs to the social security system have the potential of freeing the public welfare social service component to exert a more effective rehabilitative function in the lives of people who need this kind of help. It is to maximizing of this potential that the Project primarily addresses itself.

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* A 1972 announcement stated that the "American Public Welfare Association has received a grant of $601,885 from the Department of Health, Education and Welfare." These funds provide financial support for a project to assist the states and Federal Department implement major changes and reforms in social service delivery systems (5).

Chapter 2

STUDY PLAN

This chapter provides a description of the locale selected for the Project, gives an overview of the processes and techniques whereby data were obtained to achieve its objectives, and discusses the problems it encountered and the limitations that should be kept in mind in interpreting and using its findings.*

The inception date of the Project was September 1970. The first two years, called the "active" years, were devoted to the direct service phase and to the exploration of a model for a child welfare services delivery system. The third and final year was given to data analysis and writing. Considerable work was done in the months preceding the inception date, to devise a methodologically sound base for Project activities. Arrangements were finalized regarding the locale for Project operations; for the use of undergraduate students from San Francisco to carry out the services required in foster family care; and the construction of a set of schedules which would allow for content analysis and statistical interpretation of Project activities.

LOCALE

San Mateo County was selected as the locale for the Project because it was considered reasonably representative of suburban areas in which a majority of city dwellers now live and where more are expected in the future.

One of California's 58 counties, San Mateo ranked 10th in population in 1970. The 556,234 persons living in the county in that year represented an increase of 25.2% as compared with 1960--somewhat below the 27.0% increase

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* The schedules, forms and tests on which results and interpretations were based are available on demand. They include: profile of the child; child appraisal form; foster parents' appraisal form; student background information form; the sixty item national merit examination; the Meyer social attitudes questionnaire; evaluation of professional performance; and outline for diagnostic case summary.

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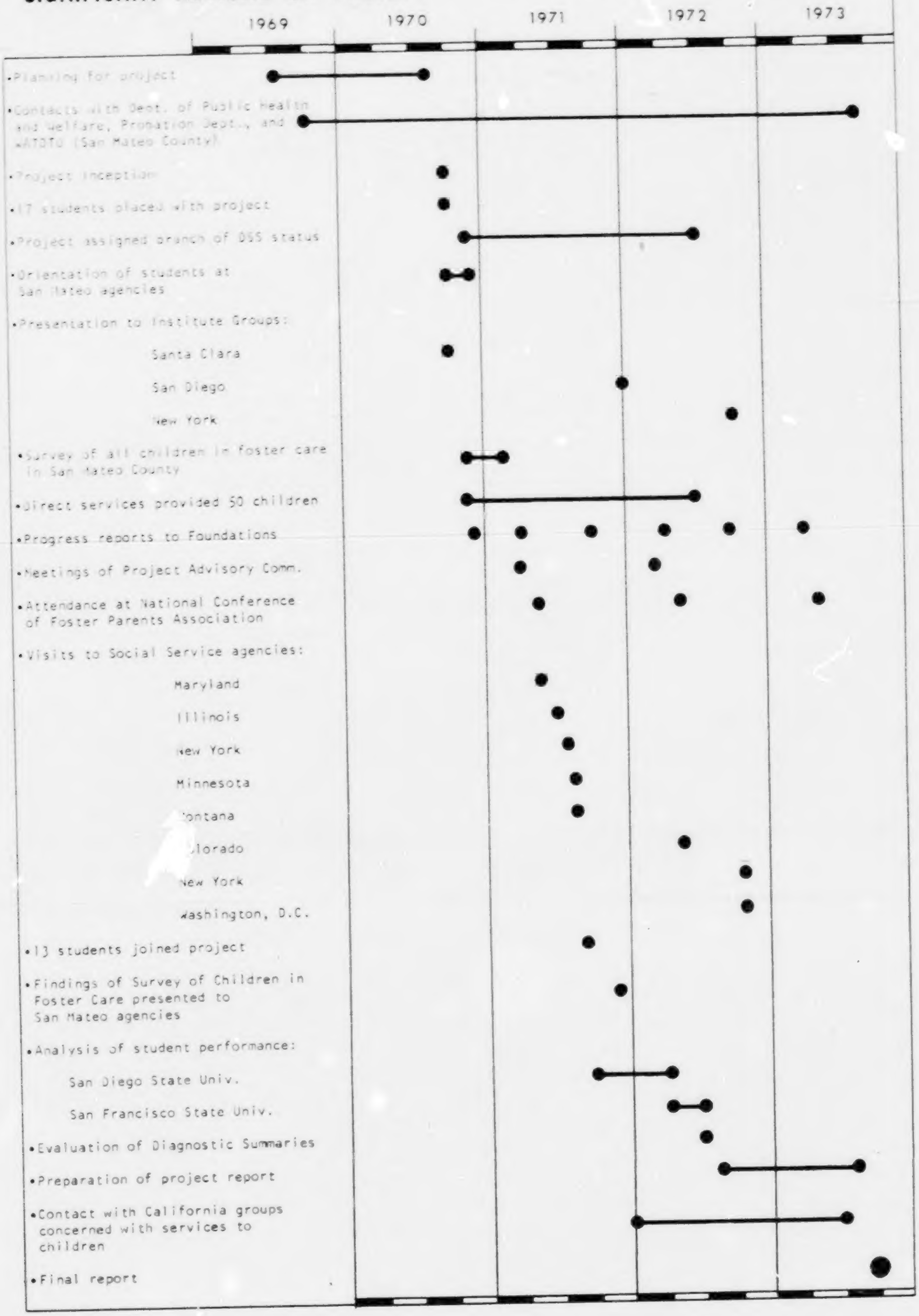
Chart 2-1

SIGNIFICANT ACTIONS ON PROJECT



for the State as a whole--but with its growth rate being about average among the state's ten most populous counties in 1970.

There were proportionately fewer blacks in San Mateo County in 1970 than in the whole state of California: 4.7% in the country and 7.0% in the State. With 26,085 blacks residing in the county, San Mateo ranked 8th among California's 58 counties. There were also proportionately fewer persons with Spanish surnames in San Mateo than in California: 11.3% in the county and 15.5% in the State. In actual number of this ethnic group, however--63,039-- San Mateo ranked 11th among California's 58 counties. When persons of other minority groups--22,464 persons comprising 4.1% of the total county population--are added to the black and Spanish groups, the total minority group population, including 111,588 persons, represented 20.1% of the county population while, for California, they comprised 26.5% of the State population.

In 1970, the median school years completed by persons 25 years of age and over in San Mateo was 12.6--higher than in the State (12.4) and exceeded only by one county, Marin (12.9). Its median family income, $13,222 in 1969, was higher than for the State ($10,732) and was exceeded only by Marin County ($13,935). San Mateo had the fewest families in the state below the poverty level, 4.2% as compared with the State's 8.4%.

In 1970, 37.8% of year-round housing units in San Mateo were rented quarters. San Mateo was exceeded in this respect by fourteen of the State's 58 counties. Of these units, .8% lacked some or all plumbing facilities, whereas for the majority of the state's counties the comparable percentage was between 1 and 4%.

Of persons under 18 years of age in San Mateo in 1970, 84.9% were living with both parents, while for the state this figure was 80.8%. In this respect, the county ranked 12th among California's 58 counties. In number of divorced persons, San Mateo ranked 9th.

San Mateo County Public Health and Welfare Department offers combined health and social services. Child welfare services, provided by the Division of Social Services (hereafter referred to as "DSS"), include adoption, day care, foster home licensing and placement, protective services, shelter care, and dependent and neglected children's services. The agency accepts children for voluntary placement. The budget for fiscal 1972-73 recommends that these services (with the addition of Boarding Homes for the Aged) be gathered together into a Child Welfare Service Division. One of the reasons for this recommendation is the increase in responsibility brought about by the transfer of dependent children from the county's Probation Department to DSS which began in April 1971 and was completed in January 1973, and which affected nearly 700 children. The budget for 1973-74 also recommends that the caseload formula of 50 dependent children per social worker be reduced to 40.

As of December 1972, there were 809 children under supervision in the Dependent and Neglected Children's Section. Of these, 198 were in their own homes and 611 in out-of-home placement. Of the latter group, 405 children were in foster family homes.

STUDY PLAN

Material for Chapter 3, "Long-Term Foster Family Care: Perspectives and Current Dilemmas," was obtained from three sources: (a) an exhaustive review of the literature concerning this type of care, including the manner in which it has been influenced by developments in child welfare in general; (b) visits by the director and the principal consultant in 1971-72 to several public and voluntary agencies, selected on the basis of their interest and/or involvement in offering programs of long-term foster family care (see Acknowledgments enumerating agencies in six states). Information from interviews with the staff of these agencies was often augmented by unpublished materials which they provided for Project use. It was our aim that the knowledge gained in this way, added to what is available in the literature, would convey a reasonably complete picture of the current philosophy in regard to long-term foster family care, the manner in which it is being offered, and the problems involved in efforts to provide care of good quality; (c) in addition, we wished to explore certain aspects of service delivery systems in public agencies, including relationships with foster parents' organizations. Toward the latter end the Project director also attended the first three National Conferences of the Foster Parents' Association, in 1971, 1972, and 1973.

Chapter 4, "San Mateo Children in Foster Family Care," describes all children in foster family care in this county, including those served by the Project. While census data were available on characteristics of San Mateo's general population, such information was not available for children in foster care under the auspices of the two cooperating agencies--either in the county itself or at the State level.* This lack would make it well-nigh impossible to generalize convincingly on the extent of need for long-term foster family care from the findings on the relatively small group of children who would be served by the Project. Consequently, it was decided to undertake a survey of all children in foster care. Both San Mateo departments were interested in such a survey since information from it could facilitate the transfer of dependent children from the Probation Department to DSS which was about to begin, and might be useful in further planning for these children.

After a pilot review of case records in both departments, a survey questionnaire was devised together with detailed coding instructions for each item in the survey. Procedures for data gathering and coding were discussed with the students in the Project during an extensive training session. Subsequently, students were assigned to abstract, classify, and code data from case records as part of their professional training experience.

During the winter of 1970 and the first two months of 1971, the seventeen students placed with the Project during the 1970-71 academic year collected information on 962 unduplicated cases of children in foster care in San Mateo County. Overall planning and supervision of this massive operation was carried out by the Project director and the student supervisor. They helped students with coding of material and with other questions, and the survey provided a unique learning experience in a research undertaking.

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* That this problem is not unique for California is amply demonstrated by several recent studies (76; 46).

A number of steps were taken to minimize errors. One entailed a comparison of code sheets with information on the survey forms to reduce coding error. A second was the elimination of duplicate cases through reference to a master list. Coded data were transferred to IBM keypunch cards, and computer analysis provided frequency counts and percentages.

Identification of significant relationships made it possible to spot emerging trends. For example, it was found that the proportion of minority children below age 9 exceeded those of Caucasian children. From this, one could infer that the proportion of minority children in foster care is likely to increase over time. Since the proportion of minority children in foster care was larger than the proportion of ethnic minorities in San Mateo county, increases in the minority population could be related to projected increases of minority children in foster care. Thus, the survey findings not only have current but also predictive implications.

In regard to the 49 children served directly by the Project, a different set of research schedules was developed which would provide optimum information about them and their foster parents. Beginning in July 1970, a member of the Project team visited and/or corresponded with selected child welfare agencies to obtain information about the kinds of data they were gathering in similar or related child welfare research. One such program, at the School of Social Work, Columbia University, had similar concerns and was the source for a number of schedules. They were modified and adapted for Project use, and were titled the "Child Appraisal Form" and the "Foster Parents Appraisal Form", respectively.

In addition, consultations with Dr. Zanwil Sperber, Chief of the Department of Child Psychology, Mt. Sinai Hospital, Los Angeles, and Dr. John Hatfield of The San Mateo County Department of Public Health and Welfare, were held to explore the utility of psychological evaluation of children served by the Project staff. In the wake of these meetings, it was decided not to administer psychological tests because of the difficulty of finding culture-free, objective tests, and the time and expense that would be involved in such a procedure.

Chapter 5, "Undergraduate Social Work Students in the Project," is presented in relation to developments in social work education based on (a) a wide-ranging review of the literature; and (b) expertise of the principal and research consultants in developing undergraduate curricula in social work, both at the national and local levels.* This would yield, we hoped, both understanding and perspective.

A Student Background Information form provided systematic background information on the students deployed in the Project. In addition to the standard variables customarily found on such forms, including age, sex, marital status, and the like, information on attitudes toward working in foster family care with children, foster parents, and community resources were explored.

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* Involvement in social work education by the principal consultant is demonstrated by six publications (108; 109; 110; 111; 112; 117). She was also a member of two panels whose contributions were important in findings and recommendations given in two other publications (113; 118).

Chapter 6, "Educational Attainments in Undergraduate and Graduate Social Work Programs: Knowledge, Attitudes and Skills," explores attainments of Project seniors as compared with those of seniors and of MSW graduates at the School of Social Work, California State University, San Diego (hereafter referred to as "San Diego"). The San Diego School, under a National Institute of Mental Health (NIMH) grant to improve the quality of its undergraduate program had embarked on a study of the relative educational attainments of social work seniors, graduates from an undergraduate-graduate continuum, and regular two-year MSW graduates (147). Due to advance planning, it was possible to coordinate the research goals of the Project with the work being carried out simultaneously at San Diego.

While Project students were randomly selected from among seniors majoring in social work, an additional consideration was to maximize the number of nonwhite ethnic minority students. Consequently, slightly more than one-half of Project students were nonwhite (predominantly black.) Thus, the student group most accurately might be called a purposive, stratified sample.

Thirty San Francisco (Project) social work seniors were compared with samples of 27 first year and 38 graduating MSW students, as well as a sample of 33 undergraduates. The test instruments employed to determine differences between these groups were selected on the basis of a review of the literature and of experience gained in giving these tests on a pilot basis to selected groups of students. They included the following:

1. The Sixty Item National Merit Examination--Cooperative Examination Project. This test, designed to measure social work knowledge, is a 60-item examination developed by the Division of State Merit Systems, Examination Branch, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, for social work masters degree graduates. The test includes sections on social casework, child welfare, supervision, and psychiatric information. Although outdated to some extent, many of the questions are considered sound, and provide a reasonable basis for testing social work knowledge.

2. Meyer Social Attitudes Questionnaire. This is a 40-item test of social values. It is arranged on a four-point scale, and the respondent checks the option which best represents his value orientation. This scale incorporates ten value dimensions, each of which is represented by a separate score. The dimensions include: Public Aid vs. Private Effort; Social Causation vs. Individual Autonomy; Social Protection vs. Social Retribution; Innovation-Change vs. Traditionalism; Personal Freedom vs. Societal Controls; Positive Satisfaction vs. Struggle-Denial; Personal Goals vs. Maintenance of Group; Pluralism vs. Homogeneity; Secularism vs. Religiosity; and Self-Determinism vs. Fatalism. One of the underlying assumptions of this scale is that there is a social work value system distinct from the values of the larger society and that exposure to social work education will enhance adherence to social work values.

3. Evaluation of Professional Performance. This is a 25-item scale used to evaluate students in field placement. Adapted from a field evaluation form used at San Diego for assessing the performance of graduate students, it rates students or practitioners on a four-point scale. Included are questions on professional attitudes, aptitude for and performance of social work practice, management of work load, and use made of learning opportunities and

learning experiences. This scale was completed by field instructors.

4. Student Background Information. See above, Chapter 5.

Chapter 7, "Evaluation of Services Provided by Students and Assessment of Student Readiness to Enter Professional Practice," discusses students' learning experiences and makes an assessment of the skill level attained by students in rendering direct client services. This is done by means of three distinct undertakings:

1. A content analysis of student materials relating to their case activities. During their field assignment to the Project, students were required to submit weekly summaries of their case activities which were compiled in each student's work folder. As a way of assessing the range and quality of their work in an objective, systematic fashion, each student's material was divided in half, with one-half read by the student supervisor, the other half by the research assistant. The material was then switched and read by the other person, and differences in evaluation were reconciled.

A classification scheme for tabulating and evaluating student work had been prepared by the Project director and the principal consultant. It contained four main headings: diagnosis, decision-making, intervention, and developing knowledge about agency and community. The four areas also listed detailed sub-headings into which student work could be categorized. The classification scheme was revised and finalized after a pilot review of student materials.

Based on consensus between the two raters, student narrative material was assigned to an appropriate category. A tabulation of entries under different headings allowed for a quantitative assessment of student activities in the areas covered by the scale. The tabulation showed not only the activities in which students were most frequently engaged, but also demonstrated a wide variation in the amount and kind of interventions engaged in by students.

While the quality of student work could not be assessed in the same manner, a reading of student records indicated that they varied widely in ability to express themselves clearly and coherently. In general, student records showed adequate ability to describe the case situations in which they were involved. A portion of students had great difficulty in organizing their thoughts in a logical manner. Some also could not transform their descriptive impressions into concepts which could guide future work with clients. While the Project staff was of the opinion that students expressed themselves more clearly in conversation and during supervisory sessions than in writing, there is really no way of documenting this impression.

2. Evaluation of diagnostic summaries. Of the 30 students in the Project, five had not been assigned any direct service cases (their learning experiences will be discussed later). The remaining 25 students, toward the end of their placement in the Project, were asked to prepare a diagnostic summary of their cases according to an outline prepared by the Project director. Altogether 22 summaries were prepared in relation to the 49 children who had been served by the Project (the number of summaries is smaller than the number of children because in many instances, several related children had been

placed in the same foster home). These summaries were given without identification to an experienced child welfare expert: this expert rater was unaware that the summaries had been submitted by undergraduates, and judged the material on the basis of minimum expectations for professional social work performance. In advance of the judging, five criteria had been developed by this expert (in consultation with others selected by her) to assess the summaries. The criteria used were the following:

a. *A compassionate view of the problem* which prompted removal of the child/children from the care of natural parents. Is the worker capable of seeing the problem from the various points of view? Is he able to "see the world through the eyes of others?"

b. *An understanding of the reason for and purpose of contacts* (visits, home or office, telephone) with foster parents, with children, and with natural parents. Does the worker himself know *why* he is meeting with these various people and is he able to make the purpose clear to them and understood by them at their own levels? Is he able to obtain agreement with the participants on purpose and goals?

c. *A sensitivity to feelings and defensive reactions*--his own as well as others. Does the worker know how to *listen* and appraise what he hears from others? Can he distinguish between the various types of responses such as: (a) adaptive responses which mean very little, i.e., the person is saying what you want to hear; (b) nonmodifiable responses which express strong bias, fixed patterns, inflexible attitudes which are a waste of time and energy to work on; and (c) modifiable responses which show openess to different ideas, willingness to work on suggestions--and if it is positive, can the worker deal with the positive response slowly and carefully toward an agreed-upon purpose?

d. *An objective viewpoint, empathy, or "controlled identification."* Social workers in placement tend to identify with clients in this order: the child, foster parents, natural parents. Is there evidence that the worker can keep his balance? Can he resist "taking sides?"--trying to direct or manipulate how *he* thinks action or movement should go?

e. *An ability to help movement toward progress and agreed-upon goals.* (See item 2). Does the worker deal with "realities" which concern participants or does he see reality only from his own value system? Does his recording reflect that he is actually *doing* something, or is he simply reporting his observations? Is he giving advice, making recommendations, saying what must or should be done, or is he listening, picking up clues, nuances, etc. thus giving the participant more freedom of expression and hence more opportunity for movement toward purpose and goals.

This assessment process was replicated independently by the Project's student supervisor. A comparison of the two assessments is included.

3. *Assessment of student readiness to enter professional practice.* Preceding this assessment, the following criteria were developed by the Project staff:

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a. Ability to collect and organize information meaningful for dealing with a given problem or situation (by observing, listening, interviewing, reading records and other pertinent materials, etc.);

b. Ability to interpret information collected in relation to client needs;

c. Ability to communicate orally and in written form;

d. Ability to provide direct service;

e. Ability to establish and maintain constructive working relationships with others (not clients) in the social services network (other Project students, Project clerical staff and supervisors-teachers, agency and community personnel, organized groups concerned with clients and services).*

The Project director and the student supervisor jointly rated each student in relation to each criterion. These ratings were then combined to produce a judgment on readiness for entering professional practice.

Chapters 8 and 9 and Appendix B deal with "Organization and Management of Child Welfare Services--A Model," "Using Teams to Deliver Social Services," and "Implementing the Child Welfare Organization Model," respectively. These three topics address themselves to managerial aspects of social work and to the added requirement in team service delivery systems for skills not usually possessed by social workers; namely, management techniques. Working in close cooperation with social work professionals, the Project's two management consultant members focused on analyzing and refining social work management concepts for the development of productive and effective agency and team service delivery models.

The approach in developing a model included:

1. A review of pertinent publications in child welfare, social work, related social and behavioral sciences, and business administration and management. These materials were analyzed for their utility in contributing ideas to a new model of service delivery.

2. The pooling of expertise of the Project staff in relation to identifying and consolidating ideas about improvement of service delivery based on their professional experiences and analytical insights.

3. Review of various public agency organizational structures to identify and define accepted management practices useful in a model for providing services to the public.

4. An analysis of manpower requirements of public service oriented organizations to reflect appropriate staffing requirements for the model.

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* In the backup seminar, a consistent effort was made by the instructor to relate particular problems or situations to larger influencing or causative forces in the agency or in the society or in both. The purpose was to develop in students the ability to suggest advocacy directions, substantive and strategic.

5. A review of general management policies and practices in current use in public child welfare agencies. The objective was to determine the extent of planning efforts and general management practices so as to ascertain the presence or absence of such management features as Planning, Programming, Budget Systems (PPBS), productivity measurement systems, management information systems, work simplification efforts, staff development programs, and the like.

6. A review and analysis of existing problems in service delivery, obtained through the aid of county officials, members of the Project staff, and social workers employed in child welfare.

After gathering material pertinent to the evolution of a comprehensive delivery model, the data and information were reviewed to identify policies, organizational structure and intra-agency relationships which require change. The utility of the model can be gauged by its capacity to ameliorate the problems which exist in current agency functioning. In addition, the model includes guidelines to make services more accessible and available to clients, to reduce duplication and overlap of services, and to construct a work environment which will enhance the flow of child welfare services. The utility of concepts such as the team approach, decentralization of services, and improved management procedures, is evaluated in light of the overview of existing and proposed social service innovations.

PROBLEMS AND LIMITATIONS

PROBLEMS

Discussions with DSS concerning our Project were initiated in December 1969. This was followed by several meetings in the spring and summer of 1970, as well as by a meeting between the Division's administrators and the two Foundations from whom funding was being sought. Assurances were given by these administrators that they desired and were able to establish cooperative relationships with the Project in the manner which we indicated would be essential for us to achieve our objectives, including the referral of children to the Project by September 1970 so that they would be available for students who would be reporting to the Project at that time.

However, early in September we were notified that certain questions had been raised by the outgoing director of the San Mateo Department of Health and Welfare which would have to be resolved before DSS could undertake to carry out its commitment to us which, in turn, would have to be approved by the San Mateo County Manager. Another series of meetings followed. It was not until October 27, 1970 that this approval was secured.

This delay was followed by an equally serious difficulty. Throughout our discussions with DSS, we were given to understand that there were in their caseload children of the ethnicity and social circumstances that would make them eligible for service in our Project (as indeed there were, as later shown by our survey). But at a meeting in November 1970, we were told that such children were non-existent. At the same time, it was only after a lengthy discussion that the DSS consented to our making a direct contact with the Probation Department's Watoto project, established two years earlier and already serving 350 black children, among them 100 in foster care. Contact with Watoto early in December, where we were cordially received, resulted in referrals from them almost at once. It was not until January 1971, however, that we filled our planned quota of 35 children; that is 3 months later than originally agreed upon. It should be noted that of the 49 children finally served by the Project only 16 came from DSS while all the rest were referred by Watoto.

It is our opinion that the delay in securing approval of the Project resulted in large part from hostility toward social work as a professional discipline on the part of some professionals who were not social workers. We further believe that the delay in referring the requisite number of children to our Project can be explained in part by a lack of knowledge concerning the characteristics of foster children in the DSS caseload and in part by the insecurity of staff in relation to the training objectives of the Project. In a period when many qualified MSW degree holders cannot find jobs, a Project which has as one of its objectives the exploration of the potential of baccalaureate degree holders to provide professional services to children is threatening to many MSW social workers. It is probably true as well that unrelenting pressures common to public welfare agencies--stemming from constant deadlines, discontent of client groups, negative community attitudes, uncertainties in regard to future developments in public welfare, etc.--and the additional responsibilities connected with the transfer of children from Probation Department to DSS lessened the interest of staff in an undertaking which did not seem to them to offer direct and instant help in handling the heavy demands of their jobs.

LIMITATIONS

Our original design called for a full academic year (nine months) of service by each Project student to children referred to us. The problems described above made this impossible. Five students could not be assigned any direct service cases. Of the 25 students who were assigned such cases, only 13 rendered services for a full academic year;* two did so for a semester and a half (about 7 months), and ten, for somewhat longer than one academic semester (6 months).

As for the children whom the Project served, the longest and the shortest period a child could remain under Project care was to be 21 and 9 months respectively--when the three summer months between the two active academic years are added to them. In fact, however, periods under Project care ranged from 6 to 18 months (when summer months are added).

Additional limitations also must be recognized. In conducting the survey of children in foster care, it was found that the data were uneven and that not all items were available for some cases. As a result of what we learned in conducting the survey, and of improved techniques for developing information from case records, agencies will be able to benefit from new approaches to case management and data utilization.

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* Two of these 13 students provided an extra four months of service by securing permission to remain in the Project for an additional semester; they felt strongly that the extra time was needed to carry through their commitment to certain children under their care.

In testing for differences in practice skills, it was recognized that such considerations as time and expense prevented us from obtaining information about student performance from the consumers of service--the clients. This would have been a valuable addition to the data gathered. It would also have been helpful to obtain an objective assessment of student performance by observing them at work. Professional judges, not connected with the Project, would have evaluated their performance.

The study design did not anticipate and consequently did not try to account for differences in grading practices at various academic institutions. Thus, it is possible that high grades for field performance may be given more readily at one university than at another. This problem cannot be avoided even if students at the same university are tested since there may be variation in grading patterns between graduate and undergraduate programs. In a more elaborate test of practice skills, it might be desirable to obtain study groups from a geographically diverse array of schools of social work so that findings would represent a cross-section of practice ratings for the country as a whole.

The major limitation of our services delivery model was that it could not be tested within the scope of the Project, and that its practicality could not be demonstrated. We wish to emphasize, however, that the management concepts incorporated into the model are practical, tested approaches successfully utilized by dynamic business and governmental organizations. The flexibility of the proposed model indicates its potential for successful application to specific instances where social work agencies are interested in improved management of the services they offer.

OBJECTIVE I:

TO EXPLORE THE NEED FOR PLANNED LONG-TERM FOSTER FAMILY CARE FOR MINORITY CHILDREN AS ONE OF THE SERVICES TO BE MADE AVAILABLE BY A MULTIPLE CHILD WELFARE SERVICES PROGRAM IN A PUBLIC AGENCY --
CHAPTERS 3 AND 4.

Chapter 3

LONG-TERM FOSTER FAMILY CARE: PERSPECTIVES AND CURRENT DILEMMAS

Long-term foster family care is the result of developments in child welfare in general, and is particularly closely related to what has been taking place in foster care and adoptions.

FOSTER FAMILY CARE: A REVIEW OF HIGHLIGHTS

Foster family care--taking care of someone else's children in your own family--is an institution that dates back to ancient times. In antiquity it was probably practiced on a limited basis (86). In the Middle Ages and especially during the later period of feudalism, it became an important method of caring for dependent children in the form of indenture: dependent children were placed into the homes of persons who met their physical and social wants and were compensated for such service by the children's work.

During Colonial times in America indenture was widely relied upon to provide for dependent children who were orphaned or destitute because of sickness, death, Indian massacres, and other misfortunes that befell their families (1: v.II, 3). To an important extent, placement through indenture, preferably in a moral, religious, and homelike atmosphere, was a response to the fear of the problems that might be created for society if homeless waifs were left to fend for themselves. The first record of child indenture was in Massachusetts in 1636 (171). Although indenture gradually declined, in some parts of the country it continued into the twentieth century (103).

Institution care, which began in the workhouse and the almshouse and which became widely available as another method of providing for dependent children after 1830, existed side by side with indenture without serious clash up to 1853. In that year, however, the pioneering work of The Placing Out System of the New York Children's Aid Society organized by Charles Loring Brace touched off a debate as to which form of care was better, institution or foster family--a debate that was destined to continue for the next one hundred years (191). The Society originated an extensive program of re-settling (not binding out) New York slum children among Midwestern farm families who needed them for employment. The placement might be terminated

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if either party became dissatisfied (22: v.I,631-33,671-73; v.II,291-330). Between 1854 and 1929 some 100,000 children had been placed by the Society (93). Brace's work stimulated similar movements in other states, and by 1923 voluntary state children's home societies had been established in 34 states.

In theory children's institutions and home-finding agencies were complementary; in practice the two systems came to be regarded as rivals. There is no doubt that the proponents of foster family care won out. The total number of neglected, dependent, and emotionally disturbed children in foster family and group home care has increased steadily, from 105,000 in 1933 to 263,000 in 1970, whereas the number in institutions has declined during this period from 144,000 to 93,500 (chart 3-1). In 1969, the rate per 1,000 children under 18 years of age living in institutions was 1.0 while the rate for foster family care was 3.4. Projections suggest a continuing decline in institutional care, and a continuing increase in the number and rate of children in foster care.* Since the 1930s, provision of foster family care has shifted from voluntary to public agencies: in 1969 public agencies carried the principal responsibility for more than 82% of the children in foster family care. In the same year, voluntary agencies provided more than 83% of all institutional care (177:Table 8). This shift and the concentration of institutional care under voluntary auspices are expected to continue.

Among professionally inspired innovations that influenced the foster family-institution controversy were those introduced between 1886 and 1911 by the Boston Children's Aid Society, under the leadership of Charles Birtwell. For each child, Birtwell asked, "What does the child really need?" rather than "Where shall we put the child?" This individual evaluation of each child required that the community make available resources sufficiently varied and flexible to meet every variety of child need--a system which would make it possible in some instances to strengthen and maintain the child's own home for him, and in others, to use the foster parent-foster child relationship as a means through which the child is ultimately restored to his parents.

Commitment to the value of the child's own home was increased as experience and knowledge revealed that separation of children and parents could be socially and psychologically harmful for both. Welfare provisions enabling children to remain with their own families were increased and the child welfare field centered its efforts on strengthening the ability of parents to practice their rights and responsibilities and on understanding the meaning and significance the child's own family has for him. Preservation of the family became the keystone of the proposals made by the First White House Conference on Children in 1909.

For those children whose own families could be salvaged, foster care was to be a "temporary" arrangement, a stopping place while his own home was

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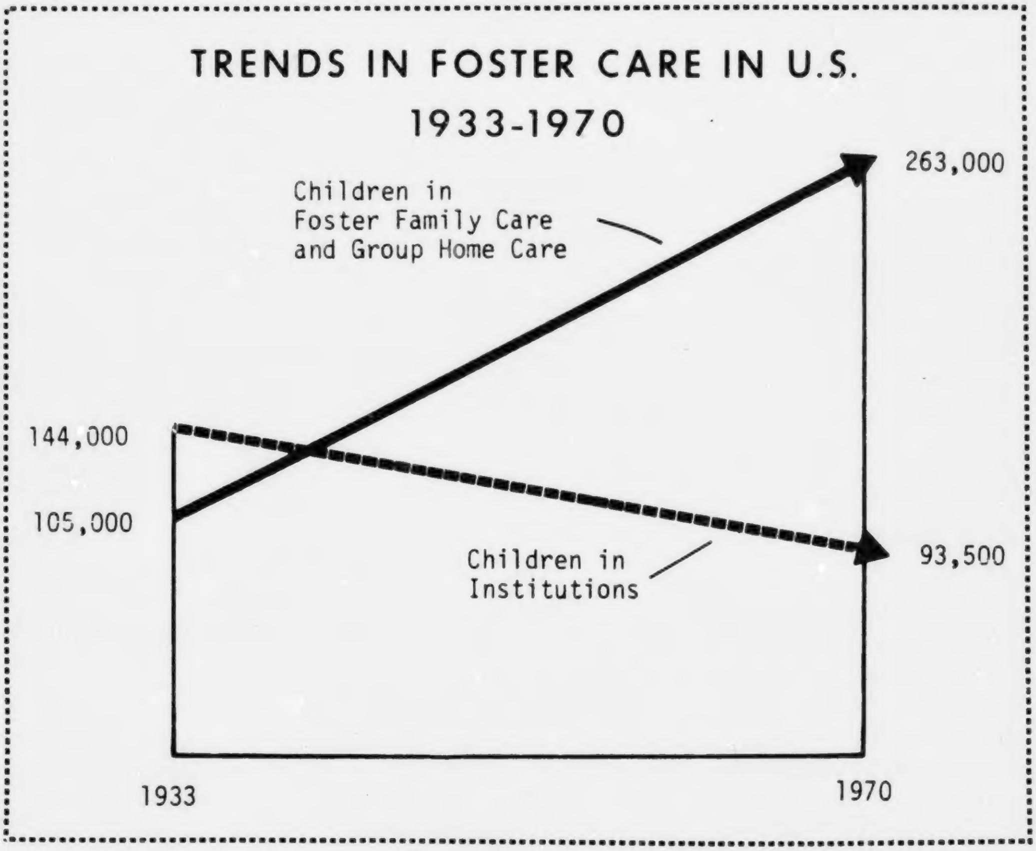
* It should be noted, however, that the percentage of children who have to live outside their homes has been reduced sharply in recent years: by 50% between 1935 and 1965. The main reasons for this reduction are: improved health standards which result in fewer parents dying before the child reaches maturity; better provision for economic assistance to families that have lost their breadwinner, with the result that only a small percentage of children are in foster care for economic reasons; and the improvement of social services generally.

Chart 3–1



being readied for his return. For those for whom there was no hope of return to their own families, the change in philosophy pointed to adoption as the preferred method of care when the child became legally free: adoption would create an "own home." This preference was already evident in 1921, when social workers first embarked on the professional practice of child-placement for adoption (156:v.I), and it was strengthened by subsequent developments. Again, foster care was to be "temporary," this time an interim period while an adoptive home was readied for the child. In both instances, foster family care was seen as the prelude to a permanent plan. Remaining in foster family care indefinitely, on a "long-term" or "permanent" basis, was avoided because such an arrangement could not be as "good" as return to natural parents or adoption. When children, in fact, remained in foster family care for years, many child welfare workers developed a sense of failure and guilt and many agencies became apologetic and defensive (164).

A 1967 "integrative review" of the literature on foster care of the preceding 25 years (169;150) found that major published materials center on recruitment problems, foster parent selection, motivation for foster parenthood, characteristics of recruited foster parents, definitions of the caseworker-foster parent relationship, training methods for foster parents, and adequacy of foster parent role performance. Analysis contained in this review suggested that the quantity of foster care research has been increasing and its quality improving, but that research findings are not consistently integrated into practice.

In 1970, approximately 263,000 children in the United States were being raised in foster family and group home care. Despite this fact, little effort had been made over the past decade to consolidate new knowledge in social work and in related fields concerned with children in placement. To bring new findings to bear on the many unanswered questions regarding the efficacy of foster care, the Child Welfare League of America initiated a Foster Care Project in 1966. The first result of this effort was a report of current practices and attitudes from the field (167). Some of the major findings discussed in this report included the following:

1. About 55% of responding agencies thought that providing own home, protective and homemaker services, would reduce substantially the number of children needing care in their agencies. But 45% did not think so, or thought the number would be reduced only a little.

2. Although the majority of agencies did not feel that laws were detrimental to sound foster care services, about one-fourth did, especially in regard to termination-of-parental-rights, custody, and long periods of time before abandonment proceedings can be started.

3. The major factors adversely affecting quality of care were said to be lack of facilities--both foster homes and group care resources; lack of staff; inadequate financing; and lack of properly trained staff.

4. More than two-thirds of the agencies did not think that present methods of foster care were meeting needs.

5. Few agencies and institutions had undertaken any studies to evaluate the adjustment of children during their stay in foster care or of children who had formerly been in foster care. At the same time all were aware that such assessment is crucial for improving services and had not been produced by researchers.

Commenting on these findings, the foster care project director said the following:

> *In general, the questionnaire results supported what the literature has stated for years about what needs to be done. A long list can be drawn up in a few minutes. It is our 'how to do it' list that is very short. For the most part the 'how to' list is phrased in terms of the methods we have now. Obviously, we do need more and better; but we need innovative and revolutionary approaches to get ahead of the ever increasing demand for care...New models of personnel deployment, training and recruitment techniques, new approaches to natural parents, creative after-care services, new models of care were reported by a very few: and they were single, isolated, and experimental. (166:432)*

The second part of the Foster Care Project was the calling of the first National Conference on Foster Care, held on October 29-November 1, 1967. The work of this Conference seems to have been influenced by the realization that professional concerns must take account of deeper forces in society which inexorably influence the foster care system. The Conference apparently intended not only to enhance professional competence but to broaden horizons and perspectives as well. Its wide-ranging examination of foster care utilized a two-pronged approach: review by a commission of practice specialists of the theoretical base of foster care; and input by specialists from other disciplines focused on a reassessment of the viability of some of the basic tenets and practices that make up the current foster care system. These other disciplines included sociology, law, medicine, psychology, and psychiatry. In addition to traditional social work concerns, the Conference looked at decision-making, delivery system, manpower and education in relation to present practice (168). Joseph Reid, the director of the Child Welfare League of America, concluded that the Conference had asked many crucial questions, but had answered few of them.

Since 1967, more systematic information has become available on the need for foster care (34) and on the proportion of requests for foster care among all requests for child welfare services (66). Evident are more consistent efforts to help foster parents fulfill more effectively their upbringing roles: attention is being given to the problem of board rates (73;67) and to education for foster parenthood, in both formal (141;71;7;51) and self-directed settings (152;35). Methods to provide foster care for the mentally retarded (2;63;120) and for hospitalized, physically disabled children (42) are being improved. Research addressed to creating objective criteria in selecting foster homes is continuing (92). Agencies are beginning to explore such policy-oriented issues as: who really knows best what an agency or institution should do in practice? Is it the professional or is it the consumer of service? This type of exploration presupposes that "if the client's feelings about services are ignored, the implementation of services by the professional is likely to be difficult at best" (65). An important study concerned with the foster care of 624 children from 467 families in New York City over the period from 1966 to 1970 has already yielded findings that have not been available to the field up to now (77;119).

A community-based development that has created a new foster care constituency has been the emergence of foster parent organizations on both local and national levels. By 1970, there were approximately 200 local foster parent groups. "The Rights of Foster Parents",(55) published in that year, voiced their aspirations. Their leaders asked: "Why don't we establish dynamic foster care programs which by design and also by function include the rights and responsibilities of foster parents?" (89;68;144). These and other questions were raised and debated at the First National Foster Parent Conference, held in Chicago in May 1971, with 851 delegates present. One of the results was the establishment of "National Action for Foster Children Week April 9-15, 1972," created by Proclamation signed by the President on February 11, 1972.

At the Second National Foster Parent Conference, held in Denver, Colorado in May 1972, with 1,195 delegates from 45 states present, a National Foster Parents Association was launched. One of the key issues at this Conference--lack of trust between foster parents and social workers--was resolved by conferring full voting rights on social workers. This decision was made by a small majority, however--by only 14 votes with 223 delegates voting (153; 176).

The third annual conference of the Association was held in Philadelphia in April 1973, with more than 1800 delegates present and with every state represented. Moreover, it was reported that by 1973, all but two states had state-wide foster parents' associations. This third conference marked the maturing of the Association with the formulation of plans and programs for the coming year and the employment of an executive. The Conference approved as its slogan "A Link of Hope". Discussions covered a wide range of topics--from the meaning of placement and separation in foster care for all concerned to national action for foster children and its direction. A "Bill of Rights for Foster Children" was adopted.

As we look back at the developments outlined here, we tend to agree with Meyer when she notes that no one could question the quality of the child welfare field's investment in attempting to improve the whole array of foster care services. Over the years, agencies have developed ingenious helping methods for all involved in the foster care process and have provided, at great cost, "a high quality of medical, dental, psychiatric, remedial, casework, and other services in order to give the very best to the children in their care" (130:437). And yet, it is equally true, that the current state of foster care justifies raising the same questions today that were raised in 1964 and 1965; namely, "Foster Family Care: Has It Fulfilled Its Promise?" (98) or "Is It Doomed as the Major Long-Range Solution?" (162)

LONG-TERM FOSTER FAMILY CARE: AN OVERVIEW OF DEVELOPMENTS

The issue of children in limbo burst onto the child welfare scene with renewed force in 1971 when the preliminary findings of a study that pinned down the cumulative costs of long-term foster care in New York City were made public (46). This study did indeed add the factor of money to the human factors that have been increasingly pressing the field toward better decision making in child welfare. And the fact that the pressure has been building up for at least the past twenty-five years has made the long-term issue all the more explosive.

It was in 1924 that Theis published her pioneering follow-up study of children who had been under foster care through the State Charities Aid Association for at least one year. She found that 73% had made a "capable" adjustment to adult life, while 27% had been "incapable" of such adjustment (180). Unfortunately, no additional significant evaluation of long-term foster family care appeared in the literature until twenty-six years later, although there is no doubt that many children were experiencing this type of care.

In 1959, Weissman published his study of 732 children in "long-time" foster care, that is, care for five years or longer, offered by fourteen agencies which were members of the Child Welfare League's Southern Region (185). His findings showed that long-time care was primarily a problem of the teen-age and the unwanted child and that it was widespread, encompassing 28% of institutional children and 15% of noninstitutional children in agency care at that time. Since the children had been normal when they first entered foster care, the inference was that their needs for planned permanent family living had not been met--not because of their problems or complications with the natural family, but because the agencies had not been able to find enough acceptable adoptive families and persisted in considering good long-term foster home placements as only second best. Yet the likelihood of returning the children to their own homes, Weissman found, existed for only 19% of institutional children and 8% of noninstitutional children. Weissman characterized these findings as "disturbing to the point of being shocking. (They revealed) that we have in this situation of long-time care one of the most difficult, costly, and challenging problems to face the League family in the Southern region--if not the total League family, and the total field of child care." He wanted to know whether his findings meant "that the children tend to fit well into foster family settings, by and large? If this is so, why cannot these substitute parental ties be made permanent for the children through adoption or guardianship proceedings?" (Underscoring added.)

Quite a receptive attitude toward long-term foster home care as a valid goal for certain children was voiced by Schoenberg in 1951 (159). It seemed to him "that within the legal and social framework of present day placement and the current levels of our skill, in certain cases long time care really is a necessary and true service for our agency to give." (Underscoring added.) He specified the situations in which long-term care was indicated and concluded that if the child is "well placed, and is being helped to cope with his reality in the terms in which he can understand it as he grows older, then foster care for him progresses into a long time placement which has its own inherent logic and value."

In a study published in 1951, Lewis looked into the situation of children who had been living in some kind of "temporary" foster placement for a period of over two years with no plan for change in the foreseeable future. Lewis discovered that the general reaction of children who found themselves in "long time temporary care" militated against good adjustment, and from this concluded that "perhaps the answer to long time temporary placement can be given in four words--do away with it." Russel, discussing these findings, stressed that "if and when long time care is really necessary, let us have the courage to face it and help a child to face it" (97;154).

At the end of 1958 Kadushin published his study of long-term boarding care for 136 children hard to place for adoption (84). For this group, the most important single factor delaying adoption was race: it operated for 36.3% of the children. Kadushin found that many of the children had been living in one home for a good part of their lives, that 37% were rated by caseworkers as having good or fair adjustment, and 92% as being well integrated in the home. He concluded that long-term placement, in and of itself, was not necessarily detrimental to the child. He raised the question as to whether "our focus on legal adoption for hard-to-place children--admittedly the desirable solution--(has) led us to neglect the possibilities of alternatives for such children?" In discussing Kadushin's findings, Glover noted that:

> *In our growing awareness of what foster home care cannot provide, the field swung so enthusiastically away from long-term foster care that I have seen workers apologetic and confused about working in a program which is obviously needed by thousands of children but which seems at times barely tolerated and often ignored. (58:27)*

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These feelings were probably reinforced by two studies, published in 1953 (18) and 1960 (37), which emphasized the fact that older children, non-white children, and children with physical and mental disabilities have had a far smaller chance of being adopted than others; and that the longer a child has stayed in foster care, the more likely he has been to develop emotional disturbances that ultimately prevent his adoption. The primordial importance of the factor of time and of early planning had to be recognized if children were not to remain in foster care unnecessarily and indefinitely.

In 1959, the Maas and Engler study called for new forms of foster care, particularly for those children who obviously were never going to return to their own homes or be placed for adoption (106). Their findings indicated that better than half of all the children they studied gave promise of living a major part of their childhood years in foster families and institutions. Included were children likely to leave care only when they came of age, often having had many homes--and none of their own--for ten or so years. A follow-up study of these children ten years later bore out these gloomy prognostications: 31% of them remained in foster care for ten or more years, while 52% spent six years or longer in foster care. Maas commented that "the popular belief that foster care services provide primarily temporary care is given no support in these findings" (107:323).

In 1963 Jeter found that remaining in their present placement or moving to another foster care facility was the plan for 71% of children in foster care under public auspices and for 57% of children in foster care under voluntary auspices. Jeter also noted that foster home care was more heavily relied upon for black than for white children, and black children in both public and private sectors tended to remain in foster care longer than did white children. Jeter attributed this to the greater proportion of white children receiving adoption services (78). In 1969, Stone reported that of the children then in foster care, between 40 and 60% will not be returned home or be placed in adoption (167).

That long-term foster care per se was not being rejected by leaders in the child welfare field as an appropriate resource for some children is clear from the standards issued by the Child Welfare League in 1959 which stated: "Foster care may be a period of care given on a planned basis to a child when there is no foreseeable possibility of adoption or return to his own home, and when foster family care is the best casework plan for that particular child until such time as the situation may change for the child or his family, or the child can carry responsibility for himself." (33)

But implementation of this concept was slow, held back to some extent by negative findings concerning unplanned long-term care. A study made in Holland in 1952-54, but not reported on in this country until 1960, examined the situations of 160 former foster children. It concluded that the situation of many of them at the time fo the inquiry "left much to be desired. Socially, many were rather well established. Only a few were unemployed or antisocial, or had lost the parental rights to their own children. However, many felt unsuccessful, disastisfied, and distressed. Emotionally unadjusted; they felt that their life had not been worth living." (179:30)

A chilling effect may have been produced as well by the study by McCord, McCord, and Thurber, also published in 1960 (104). This was based on a follow-up of participants in the Cambridge-Somerville Youth Study who by 1960 were adults. The adjustment of nineteen individuals who had experienced foster placement more than twenty years earlier was compared with nineteen controls reared with their own families. Criminality and deviance were found to occur more often in the group who experienced bad foster placement, and the authors concluded that, if made during adolescence, foster home placements may actually be harmful. In challenging these findings, Fanshel pointed out that foster placement had been used with the participants as a last resort, after all other steps had failed, and that it was likely that the nineteen children had shown considerable maladjustment and pathology even before leaving their own homes--a possibility that had not been taken into account by the authors (44).

In 1961 the mood in regard to long-term foster family care among professional social workers seemingly began to change. In that year Lawder suggested that "there is much work to be done to unfreeze long-time care and to develop its potentialities for children." (94). In 1962, Tegethoff and Goldstein reiterated that goals differ from one placement situation to another and that in some, long-term placement may be the only appropriate goal (170). Glover repeatedly called attention to the fact that many foster families do provide physical as well as emotional security for children in long-term care (59); that there are children who will not go home, who will not be adopted, and who must and should grow up in foster care (60); and that "children in long-term foster care do not have to be children in limbo." (61)

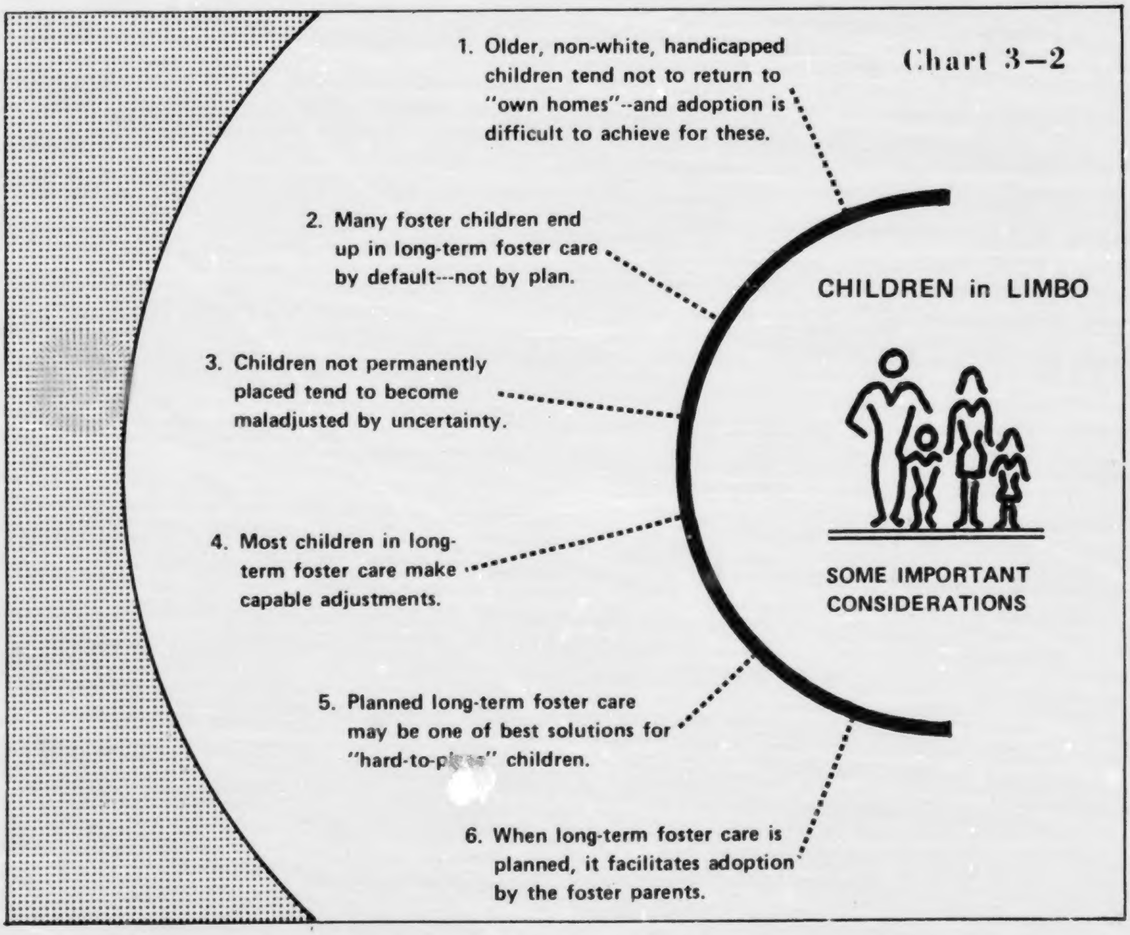
Essentially encouraging results were described in a study completed by Gil in 1963 in which he followed up a group of twenty-six children discharged from foster care during 1956 (57). His objective was to evaluate the extent to which each child had realized his "developmental potential" which had been classified as "fair" or "good" at the time of admission into care. Gil concluded that agency effectiveness in meeting casework objectives with children of "good" potential is high, but takes a significant drop with children of "fair" or lower potential.

A study by Murphy examined the records in a Canadian Society for mentally normal children who had experienced more than five years' continuous foster care, whose cases were closed by the time he began his study and who were at least eleven years old when their cases were closed. He divided the 316 adults in his sample whose mean age was twenty to twenty-one years into three categories: "(a) Outcome satisfactory in terms of the child's social milieu; (b) Outcome less satisfactory but without signs of pathology or open to disturbance; (c) Outcome unsatisfactory, usually with signs of pathology or disturbance." About 50% were classified as satisfactory, 30% as less satisfactory; and 19.3% as unsatisfactory (136).

A British study published in 1966 was less encouraging. Ferguson's study of children in the care of the Glasgow Children's Department included follow-up of these children during their first three years after leaving care. The conviction records and employment histories of these children were found to be worse than those of a group of working-class children in Glasgow not in care. Children who had been in residential establishments had worse records than children who had been in foster homes but this may have been due to the fact that the latter had fewer problems to begin with (49).

In the United States, confronted with a continuing "crisis in foster family care" (53;28), a number of agencies attempted to develop services and resources that would sustain continuity of care and lasting relationships for children who could never live in their own homes or be adopted (164). These agencies were consciously trying to reach a group of foster parents who, for financial or psychological reasons, could not or would not want to adopt, but who did want and were able to provide foster family care on a long-term basis. Glover and Reid urged that more agencies follow this lead, especially for black children who had been relinquished for adoption, but for whom adoption would not be realized (62). By 1966 it was apparent to Reid "that long-term foster care (has) to be planned for Negro children" (150:172). In the same year, Lewis, who had written on the subject thirteen years earlier, called attention to changes in agency practice that might be required by planned long-term foster family care, such as investing the parents providing such care with greater responsibility for important decisions concerning the child (98). Both the theoretical and practical bases of agency practice in this type of care were considerably strengthened by the appearance in 1965 of a clinically oriented discussion which squarely accepted long-term foster family care as "a necessary and valid service," placed it in a psychosocial context, and described the elements in an adequate foster home study and the most effective ways of achieving continuity of care. The author believed

Chart 3–2



CHILDREN in LIMBO

SOME IMPORTANT CONSIDERATIONS

1. Older, non-white, handicapped children tend not to return to "own homes"--and adoption is difficult to achieve for these.
2. Many foster children end up in long-term foster care by default---not by plan.
3. Children not permanently placed tend to become maladjusted by uncertainty.
4. Most children in long-term foster care make capable adjustments.
5. Planned long-term foster care may be one of best solutions for "hard-to-place" children.
6. When long-term foster care is planned, it facilitates adoption by the foster parents.

that her practice standards were capable of accomplishments, as "is demonstrated by the fact that it has been done for a few cases in many agencies and for many cases in some agencies." (90)

Positive possibilities were suggested by Meier's follow-up study which described the results of interviews with forty women and twenty-one men who had experienced five or more years of foster family care in their childhood, and had not been returned to their own families while they were children. Although Meier called attention to the number of individuals with "an impaired sense of well-being," she also pointed out that few cases of gross disturbance in adjustment appeared to exist. On the contrary: "The vast majority...have found places for themselves in their communities. They are indistinguishable from their neighbors as self-supporting individuals; living in attractive homes; taking care of their children adequately, worrying about them, and making some mistakes in parenting; sharing in the activities of the neighborhood; and finding pleasure in their associations with others." (126: 206;127;128)

In 1966, several agencies reported encouraging results in relation to their long-term foster family care programs. Johnson wrote that his agency, having identified one-third of the children in its care as "children for whom permanent foster family care is the only feasible plan," proceeded to provide such care and found the results "encouraging." (79) Hargrave stressed that such programs could not be effective unless child welfare workers accepted the idea that this type of care was a necessary and constructive service for some children. (72) Ostazeski described her agency's encouraging experience in recruiting foster parents who "are not ready to meet the demands of traditional foster care--with its constant threat of having to give up the child and often the necessity of sharing him with his own parents--nor ready to accept full responsibility for a child through adoption." (142)

At a 1966 symposium on "troubled children," deliberations in regard to foster care were summarized as follows: "We were aware that there are many children who cannot ever return to their own homes. For these children, foster care on a planned, long-time basis must be provided. Emphasis was put on planned, long-time basis to prevent drifting into foster care or long-time care through default." (143:93) In reporting on a demonstration project in long-term foster family care for infants and young children that was in progress in her agency, Montgomery concluded that "social agencies can no longer ignore the imperative need for permanent foster family care for children for whom adoption is unlikely, as it is for so many children of minority groups." (133:126) Another project, "intended to meet the problem presented... by well babies ready for discharge but remaining in hospitals because foster homes are not available," was initiated by two New York agencies, operating jointly, in 1966 (155).

Watson's discussion of the voluntary agency's responsibility for providing long-term foster care by design, not default, appeared in 1968 (181). In his view, the child welfare field has "not devised substitutes for foster family care that will replace it, only some that will supplement it... A good adoption program and a good temporary foster care service must each be backed up by long-term foster care." In a companion article, Weaver discussed the public agency's responsibility for providing long-term foster care by design, not default (183). He emphasized the importance of a goal-oriented plan for each child that would provide direction for a continuum of treatment.

A study attempting to evaluate the potential of long-term care for young minority children was published by Madison and Schapiro in 1969. Among several positive findings they noted "that the achieved adoption rate--21.6 percent--is very high. In the country as a whole, less than 10 percent of the nonwhite children born out of wedlock (were) adopted (in 1963)." (115:170) The agency studied by Madison and Schapiro was also studied by Billingsley and Giovannoni who found that from 1962 to 1967 there was a steady increase in the percentage of children adopted, as well as a quite remarkable increase in the proportion of children returned to their own mothers. As a result, the proportion of children in long-term care was being reduced although this group still included close to half the children in the agency's care (14).

A study by Kadushin confirmed that a significantly higher percentage of hard-to-place children achieve adoption in the home where they were initially placed for long-term foster care than children placed in a home for short-term care (87). A similar outcome is emphasized by Neely, provided long-term foster parents are offered help in exploring adoption. "We believe," he writes, "that the concept that exploration of the idea of adoption must first come from foster parents is erroneous. We believe that the initiative is the responsibility of our agency staff." Of the 92 children adopted by foster parents in the group he discusses, 52 were black (138:164). These reports do not seem to give support to the regulation some States have against allowing foster parents to adopt a child already in their care.

For some members of the practice commission of the National Conference on Foster Care, permanent foster home programs were "dramatic evidence of new developments and approaches to foster family placement and arrangements to meet the needs of children in special situations" (149:69); the beginning of "confidence that long-term foster care can become an effective service when the issue of termination of parental rights is faced squarely, or when there is a realistic approach to the continuum of the parent-child relationships" (134:154); evidence that "some foster parents can help children have the needed security and sense of belonging because of their long incorporation in the family." (145:166)

Such programs have special significance for nonwhite children. For example, Fanshel's data on the exit of children from foster care in New York City indicate that 3.5 years after entry, 46% of the children were still in care. Furthermore, there is less success in getting black children discharged, with almost half still in care at the end of 3.5 years in contrast to 39.2% of the white and 44.2% of the Puerto Rican children. Like Maas, Fanshel found that children leave foster care in the greatest volume during the earlier phase of placement, and this volume tapers off markedly over time (45). The same kind of durational relationship is suggested by a later longitudinal study by Shapiro: she found that for the first year of placement the agency's investment--as characterized by experienced workers with low caseloads, who work intensively with the natural family--is related to early discharge (163).

In Minnesota, the proportion of nonwhite children among those under state guardianship as dependent/neglected rose from 12% in 1951 to 36% in 1966, remaining at this level in 1971. Living arrangements as of June 30, 1971 showed that 13% of the white children were in adoptive homes while this was true for about 6.5% of the nonwhite. Among the white children, 30% had been committed less than two years earlier (in 1969), but this held for only 14% of the nonwhite (131).

Once again we learn that children who are kept in "temporary" care for long periods, even though there is no possibility of return to the natural parents, are deprived of their chance for normal developmental growth. Two authors of a recent study also state that in such situations, foster parents frequently ask for the child's removal from the foster home. They write:

> *This request comes either because of the emotional or adjustment problems emerging out of the incessant and endless uncertainty of it all, or from the foster parents' sheer frustration over the refusal of responsible adults (courts and the agencies) to make decisions that would result in a more permanent arrangement for the child. The familiar nomadic existence begins, ironically symbolic of a search, sometimes self-initiated, for continuity and meaning in relationship and environment for the child. (27:500)*

Of the 114 children in this study for whom it was possible to determine parental rehabilitation potential, 71 scored as never being able to return to the natural parents. Of this group, 33 had been in placement over two years--a time period considered ample either for parents to be rehabilitated or for decision-making professionals to arrange long-term placement for the children. The need to cut down on "sheer frustration" among foster parents is embodied in their "rights," one of them being "consideration as possible permanent parents for the child who, after being in their home for some time, becomes free for adoption or permanent foster family care."

This review of the literature reveals a growing concern for children who are cared for by foster parents for significantly long periods during their growing years--children who constitute a high risk group from the point of view of personal and social adjustment. Visible, too, is a somewhat hesitant realization that planned long-term foster family care may be one of the best solutions for many of these children. For some children an agency's extended, futile search for adoptive parents means that the child outlives his welcome in a temporary foster home, and that throughout this long stay, the foster parents, committed to "temporary" care, maintain as detached an approach as they can muster.

These developments have been brought about by several circumstances. Recruitment of adoptive and "temporary" foster homes for certain groups of children--the so-called "hard-to-place"--has continued difficult; there are children for whom living in their own homes, or in adoptive homes, can never become a reality; experience and scientific study have given evidence of some devastating effects that replacements into a succession of "temporary" foster homes may have on children. Social workers are faced daily with the changing characteristics of the children needing foster care, including more with appreciable emotional disturbances who come from families where social disorganization or personality disorders of parents are so severe as to affect their parenting potential. Placements for most children of all ages are now necessary more because of immaturity, emotional disturbance, or gross

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pathology of either the child and/or parents rather than because of death, illness, or unemployment of parents (75;54).* Moreover, some of these children do not come from a family at all but are only products of an illicit or casual sexual union.

Of special and urgent concern is the fact that among the "hard-to-place," minority children continue prominent. Writing in October 1972, Gallagher noted that the "Children's Bureau is concerned about the fact that at least 40,000 of the estimated 60,000 children awaiting adoption are black or of mixed race" (52). How many of these "awaiting" children find themselves in a limbo of unplanned long-term foster family care during which their ego identity is threatened and the maximum potential of foster parents for parenting is weakened, we do not know. This is particularly disturbing because the child welfare field has made a prodigious effort to find adoptive homes for all children who can benefit from family life but who cannot remain in their own homes--including minority group children (Appendix A). There is also new knowledge concerning the parent-child relationship which questions the assumption that every child who cannot return to his own family should be totally separated from them.

Nevertheless, opposing views continue to characterize the discussion. For example we find two recent publications by qualified social work practitioners which propound basically different positions in regard to long-term foster family care: one emphasizes its constructive and benign possibilities when planned early and carefully (73); the second maintains "...that foster care is not the best plan for children" and that "...for most children foster care is a stop-gap measure filled with pitfalls...Return to own home and adoption are the only alternatives" (32:88,92).

There is, however, general consensus that the field must improve its decision-making process in regard to the appropriateness of a particular type of care for a particular child--especially to arrive at decisions quickly enough to save the child from limbo and the public from huge expenditures (46). This is imperative in foster care. And yet, social workers apparently continue to find it extremely difficult to make sound decisions within a reasonable period of time. Writing in 1967, Arnold stated that among the most difficult decisions child welfare workers are called upon to make are "that a child can never return to his own home and...that he cannot be placed in...an adoptive home. ...As a consequence the child drifts from one (foster) home to another, putting roots down nowhere" (9:222). Mech noted in 1970 that "foster care practice is a decision-making enterprise, but one that operates without the use of scientifically acceptable tools for reaching decisions" (125:26). And the California State Social Welfare Board, writing in September 1972, states:

> *Another essential element...is the need for the prompt development of a plan for the short and long-range future of the child who has been placed. It is the Board's concern that these difficult but necessary decisions are*

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* Beltrami County Welfare Department, Bemidji, Minnesota, reported, for example, that in 1967 they planned to return only 40 percent of the children under temporary custody to their parents; this figure was compared with 55 percent in 1966 and 86 percent in 1965. (80)

*not now being made with the interests of the child in mind--but often may be avoided as an expediency. (29:27-8)**

That indecision is becoming unacceptable to the public and to the foster parents is underscored by the passage in 1971 of a 24-Month Review Law in New York which requires a court review for children in foster care and offers the court four alternatives: (1) directing that foster care of the child be continued; (2) directing that the child be returned to the natural parents; (3) directing that the agency institute a proceeding to legally free the child for adoption; (4) directing that a child who is legally free be placed for adoption in the foster family home where he resides or has resided or with any other person or persons.** The intent is to do away with long-term foster family care, as stated by Karl Zukerman at a meeting on June 15, 1972. "Because of the change in the way we see foster care, there must be a change in our organization, activities and goals. Foster care is no longer viewed as a permanent plan but as a temporary device, a way station to return home or to adoption. The legislature and city and state governments see long-term foster care as an exception, a last resort, certainly not the first choice in planning for children." In 1971, New York City devised a system of incentive payments "for increasing desired exits from foster care": the City is paying private agencies $400 for each child discharged home after more than a year in foster care, and $1,000 for each hard-to-place child adopted, "if the number of such adoptions arranged in a year is greater than the agency's previous 3-year average" (46:v).

It seems, therefore, that New York has made the full circle. What is different now as compared with the situation sixty years earlier is that certain additional resources have been made available to expedite exit from foster care: subsidized adoption, with preference given to foster parents; a clear time limit within which natural families must reach a decision as to what they want to do concerning their child in care; relaxation of requirements in the "diligent search" for natural parents; and some financial incentive for agencies. Under these circumstances it is likely that the shift toward converting permanent foster care to adoption will be increasingly emphasized. In this context, foster care is seen by many agencies as an extremely important experience in a child's life, more so than in the past, so that the selection of a foster home requires just as much care as an adoptive home. It is also likely that the pressure to identify and legally free children now in foster care who need permanent placement, even if they appear rooted in foster homes which are not interested in adoption with subsidy, will intensify. Then the difficult decision whether to uproot a child from such a home must be made in each case. Social workers will have to answer the question: will the pain of separation for child and foster parents do more harm than the good the child will derive from his consciousness that his new home (if one can be found) will be truly permanent, legally as well as emotionally? In short, it is crucial to make decisions and arrive at plans in the shortest possible time; but it is equally crucial to make good decisions and to arrive at sound plans and for some children this may call for long-term foster family care.

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* Fortunately, research directed toward reducing uncertainty in child placement decisions is beginning to challenge certain persistent assumptions and to produce guidelines for practitioners (64;123;146). That social workers will have to make more explicit to parents that in addition to having rights, they (the parents) have responsibilities which they often neglect is also indicated (129). An audit in New York City in March 1972 disclosed large amounts of money owed to the Department of Social Services on the basis of agreements made with parents of children who were in placement both in the public and in the voluntary child-caring agencies.

** The 24-Month Review Law came about partly as a result of foster parents' social action. Foster parents felt that their rights were not being protected in situations in which they had cared for their foster children for many years, and then the natural parents come back into the picture or the agency decides to place the children in adoption.

LONG-TERM FOSTER FAMILY CARE: CURRENT PRACTICE

No nation-wide data exist on the number, characteristics, and circumstances of children current in planned long-term foster family care, although this type of care was initiated in the early 1960s. In an effort to gain some idea of its scope and of the problems involved in offering it, 11 voluntary and public agencies in six states were visited by the director of the Project and its principal consultant (Acknowledgments). Summary of what was learned is given below.

LONG-TERM AND PERMANENT FOSTER FAMILY CARE

Differentiation of the service they are offering from "temporary" foster family care has brought about the use of two designations--"long-term" and "permanent." In terms of social substance, both are seen as a period of care provided for a child on a planned basis when there is no foreseeable possibility of adoption or return to his own home, and when extended care is the best casework plan for him. The purpose of the placement is to assure the child continuity of care and relationships by one set of parents who want him and have the intention of rearing him.

The difference between the two is in the legal status of the child: "long-term" applies to children who are in the legal custody of the agency but have not been surrendered by their natural parents; "permanent" applies to children who have been surrendered and are consequently legal wards of the State, with guardianship vested in the agency. This difference influences procedures in dealing with the situation of any particular child. When there is no surrender, commitment to the foster parents emphasizes the long-term nature of the arrangement rather than its permanence. In permanent care the natural parents are out of the picture and the agency can make the commitment on permanency.

The essence of this difference emerges from procedures used in Minnesota and the philosophy that underlies these procedures. At the time of placement in permanent foster family care, or in many cases later in placement, the agency makes the decision not to seek adoption for a child, and family and agency enter into a formal agreement that the child will remain in the home. When this program was initiated in 1965, many former long-term foster homes became permanent by this agreement; some of the long-term homes chose not to sign the agreement but are as "permanent" as those who did, and they are handled in much the same way. Minnesota's Manual states that "formal recognition and planned use of permanent homes as a necessary and socially constructive service strengthens the range of resources for children and provides wider opportunity for individual planning. The development of permanent homes is an effort to solidify and anchor the status of children in long-term foster care, thus removing the insecurities of their being children in limbo... Permanent home placement, on a decisive and open basis, is a valid resource for those children for whom adoption is unlikely to become a reality." In long-term care, the natural parents as well as the foster parents and the County Welfare Department enter into the agreement; in permanent care, the natural parents do not participate (81). Similar procedures are used by voluntary agencies since they are included in the state-wide plan. Both public and voluntary agencies delegate all responsibility to the family in relation to nurturing and parenting. The agency maintains only legal responsibility. The child does not "belong" to the agency and is cared for only by the foster parents. He belongs to the foster family and the agency is only supportive and performs the necessary legal tasks. The agency works with the parents instead of supervising them (69).

In Maryland, permanent foster care--"long-term care short of adoption"--agreement must be approved by court six months after the child had been placed. The Department's policy is to retain guardianship after approval because it believes that it is helpful to foster parents and child for the agency to stay in the picture throughout the child's minority years. The purposes of supervision of a permanent foster family home are to help the child establish his identity, and to help foster parents become involved in their total responsibility of caring for the child. It is the Department's philosophy that even if an adoptive family should materialize for the child who has been in foster care for some time, it is important to evaluate what it would do to that child to move him from the foster family when he has in actuality already become a part of that family. Further, the Department emphasizes that permanent care is not a replacement for long-term foster care. "Some children need to retain their ties with natural parents even though placement will be required until they reach adulthood. For this reason, the responsibilities and expectations of the natural parents, the foster parents, and the Department will differ in the two types of placements."*

In Colorado, at the time permanent foster home care is planned, the department goes to court with the foster parents and guardianship is given to the foster parents, while the department retains residual parental rights. The guardianship order delineates specifically the responsibilities turned over to the foster parents and those retained by the agency. Each order is tailored to the individual case. In many cases, particularly among black, working poor, the agency agrees to pay full cost of support until the child comes of age. In other cases the foster parents may want and need only a token payment and medical aid. Once the commitment for permanent foster care is made, the child is no longer considered for adoption except by the foster parents.

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* Permanent foster home standards are spelled out as follows: "In each situation the decision will be made in relation to the ability of the family to meet the needs of a specific child, even if one or more factors (age, marital status, race, and religion) may be in contradiction to the general principle."

HOW LONG IS LONG-TERM CARE?

There is no agreed-upon span that would uniformly define "long-term" care. In New York, the durational description is care of three months or longer as far as official regulations are concerned, but some agencies view it as care of six months or longer. In Illinois, there is as yet no definition but a recent study recommended that the designation be "uniformly applied to full-time foster care placement made for purposes other than adoption, beginning at eighteen months after placement and ending with termination of foster care services or with initiation of permanent foster care placement" (11:56). Perhaps the major utility of a re-determined durational definition is the desirability of emphasizing that a permanent plan for a child can reasonably be expected to be made within a given period of time--that he must not be permitted to drift into limbo. Estimates about the length of time that is reasonable in this context range all the way from under three months to two years.

REASONS THAT LED AGENCIES TO INITIATE LONG-TERM AND PERMANENT PROGRAMS

The reasons given emphasize the inseparability of foster care from adoption. "Many children legally free for adoption were adoptable children in every aspect of development--and we were convinced that we should place these children in homes which would insure the greatest measure of security, stability, love and affection and a sense of belonging short of legal adoption," stated one agency. Several spoke of "concern for children who were hanging in limbo and the need to develop a plan which would assure continuity of care." Another said, "We began this program out of concern for the children legally free for adoption but for whom we could not find adoption--these were children of mixed racial background, with physical handicaps, or older children, or intellectually slow." And another explained its motivation as being "The difficulty experienced in finding adoptive homes for minority children and the feelings that these children should not be denied the benefits of a family." The director of the Harlem-Dowling Children's Services noted that "foster care is good because it not only provides a substitute home where there was one lacking, but it also recognizes and addresses itself to the reality that every child does not have to be adopted to feel secure. And that every child is not adoptable and not suited for adoption. Foster care can serve the purpose and it continues to be a very respectable need, especially in black communities where black children are not as adoptable as white children."

According to the director of the Chicago Child Care Society, at present, adoptive homes can be found for most children who need them--black and white. At the same time, long-term foster family care is needed for some children: some children are not and probably will never be free for adoption; others have made good adjustments in their permanent foster homes; still others would not be adopted by anyone. The director is not in favor of contracts with long-term foster parents or of the practice of withdrawing agency supervision from those foster families in which the child has apparently made a good adjustment.

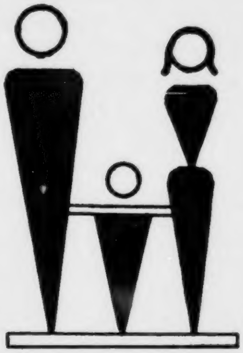
Chart 3–3

an assessment

Long-Term Foster Family Care

The POTENTIAL

- Provide stable family life for children whose own homes can not be rehabilitated
- Can help children of minority groups with little or no chance of adoption
- Strengthens multiple-service concept in meeting needs of children



DETERRENTS

- Some Agencies feel adoption and return to own home are the only valid services for children
- Some agencies fail to include in long-term efforts the key elements for success
- Lack of research to evaluate long-term foster family care
- Increasingly high costs

THE QUANTITATIVE NEED FOR LONG-TERM FOSTER FAMILY CARE

According to information obtained in August 1972, foster family care in Minnesota has stabilized and there is no major trend toward an increase in this program. During 1970-71, 328 of the 3,002 dependent/neglected children under State guardianship were living in adoptive homes, while 305 were in permanent foster homes. Since current plans call for long-term foster care for a large majority of the remaining 2,369 children, it may be assumed that the proportion in permanent foster homes will not decline (131).

In Montana, during 1970-71, foster family care was provided for 680 children, an increase of 71 children during this one-year period; institutional care was provided for 150 children, a decrease of 18 institutional placements. During the year 253 children were placed for adoption, including 63 children who would be considered hard to place. Some Indian children are being adopted by white families, and there has emerged some resistance to crossing racial lines on the part of some Indians. The State Department anticipates an increase to 800 foster family children during the coming year and a decrease of children placed for adoption. The current plan is continuation of foster care for more than 60 percent of the children. The Department is recommending that a program of subsidized adoptions be established.

In January 1972, there were 10,000 children in foster care in Maryland. Of these, 229 were in permanent foster care; another 331 children, 226 black and 105 white, were waiting for permanent placement. These "waiting" children have been in the pre-adoptive category for years, and now that it has become clear that they will not be adopted, the agency is seeking permanent foster care for them. How many of the others will enter the "waiting" group, it is not possible to ascertain. In some districts, they are beginning to consider children for permanent foster placements in intake.

Colorado does not have a subsidized adoptive program but is trying to develop one. In April 1972, Colorado had 3,440 children in foster care; of this number, 1,289 or 37% were classified as being in permanent care.

In Illinois on November 30, 1970, the State agency had in care 17,000 children, 9,260 of whom were in foster family care. Of this number, 5,499 or almost 60% had been in care for fifteen months or longer--a period of time which, in the Department's judgment, placed them into the "long-term" category. The number of children being accepted for care has been increasing.

In August 1972, Westchester County (New York) estimated that of the 1,800 children in foster homes, 50 would be returned to their families within a year or two; 20 children over the age of five would be placed in adoption; 325 children have been legally surrendered to the agency and will continue in long-term foster care; the remainder, 1,405 children, who apparently will be subject to the 24-month review, the agency hopes to move into subsidized adoption.

Spence-Chapin's (New York) 1971 annual report shows that during that year, 698 foster homes were under supervision and that these homes provided care for 1,525 children--many of them, on a long-term basis. During that year, 260 children were placed in adoptive homes, including 75 subsidized adoptions.

CHARACTERISTICS OF CHILDREN IN LONG-TERM FOSTER FAMILY CARE

A selective report on foster care in Belcrami County, Minnesota, at the end of October 1971 shows that the typical foster child was between the ages of twelve and eighteen; Indian; Protestant; neglected; under the temporary legal custody of the Welfare Department; has had more than one placement; has been in placement more than three years; and will remain in foster care. Further, all indications were that this County was much more involved with families in difficulty than in the past (82).

In Westchester County (New York), most of the 1,405 youngsters whom the agency hopes to move into subsidized adoption are black "because at the time these children were surrendered six or seven years ago, you just didn't have resources for the black child you have today."

More than 92% of the children accepted into Spence-Chapin's long-term foster family care Project between August 1962 and the end of 1966 were black (115). All children served by Harlem-Dowling are black, and from very deprived backgrounds both socially and economically.

With the increase in foster care, the Montana Department finds that children are staying longer in care. It also appears that the majority of children in foster family care (as of August 1971) are older: of 765 children, 40% (308 children) were twelve years old and older, whle another 24% (180 children) were six to twelve years old. Thus, almost two-thirds of the children in care were six years or older. Almost one-third of the children were Indian.

THE ILLINOIS STUDY

A study of children in foster care fifteen months or more was completed in October 1971 (11). Its major purpose was to achieve improved services to children and families and thereby a reduction in number of children entering and resident in foster care.

As already noted, almost 60% of the children were found to have resided in foster care fifteen months or longer. The study concentrated on a 10% random sample of these children--550 in all. In Illinois, of the total population under age 20, black children appear at the rate of one in every six. In the study population, all members of which were under 20, black children appeared at the rate of three in every five. This large proportion of black children resulted in 58% of the sample being black--of 550 children, 319 were black, 224 white and 7 "other".

It was found that 82.2% of all cases in the study had been in the agency caseload from two years to more than ten years. Those in the caseload ten years and longer accounted for the largest group (94 children) and constituted over 17% of all cases in the study. Those who had been in the caseload two to three years made up the next largest group--81 children or 14.7% of the study group. The remaining children had spent between three and ten years in the caseload. It is not surprising, therefore, that the average length of time which children in the study group had spent in foster care was six years and two months.

When children in the study group were distributed in relation to long range goals for them, it was found that continued foster care was the goal for the largest number--209 children or 38% of the total. Continuation of agency guardianship and supervision, applicable to 16% of the children, suggests that many in this group may remain in foster care as well. It is likely, therefore, that remaining in foster care is the goal for at least half of the children. Adoption was the goal for 27.8% of the children, but return to parents, for less than 6%. The study staff writes further as follows:

> *Of the 550 placements, we could expect at least 26 planned replacements, and up to 36 if those in specialized foster home care were there for diagnostic purposes. When in view of this the findings show not 26 or 36 replacements but 280, i.e., 50.9% or slightly more than half of the total, the actual benefit deriving from professional expertise in diag-*

> *nosis, selection of placement and meeting case needs becomes questionable. ...it is necessary to recognize that regardless of expert knowledge of the child's needs, placement selection must be made from the available supply of foster care facilities.*

A distribution of long range goals for the children according to race showed that long-term foster family care and continuing guardianship and supervision were the goals for 60% of the black children as compared to less than 47% of the white children. In contrast, adoption was the goal for almost a third of the white, but for only a quarter of the black youngsters. And return to parents, while pitifully rare for both groups, was nevertheless a more frequent goal for the white than for the black children--for 6.7 and 5%, respectively.

Of 321 cases referred for neglect, 50.4% had been in the caseload five years or more. Of the 52 cases referred on the basis of parental illness, 71.2% had been in the caseload five years or more, while 36.5% had been in the caseload ten years or more. Of 47 children referred due to unmarried status of the mother none was in the caseload under eighteen months; twelve were in the caseload over ten years. The relatively negligible number of children for whom the goal was return to parent is partly explained by the fact that at the time of intake only 76 couples who were parents of the children were married and living together; at the time of census only 31 continued to be married and were living together.

The study's major conclusions were:

1. Negative factors associated with the child, physical and/or emotional handicap, etc., are not major contributors to the maintenance of foster care;

2. An abundance of personal and social problems and apparent poverty of personal and social resources attest to major parental contribution toward promotion and perpetuation of foster care for their children;

3. Analysis of worker contacts discloses a pattern in which foster parents are first in visit frequency, foster children are next and natural parents place last;

4. In relation to foster parents, quality of service becomes a concern in light of the number of replacements due to caretaker requests. In relation to foster children, some concern is justified in light of the frequency of replacement due to the child's behavior. In relation to the natural parents, both the quality and quantity are of concern;

5. "These disclosures lead to the conclusion that an existing need for application of appropriate services and need for an improved quality and quantity of service contributes to the initiation and continuation of foster care for the child."

PROBLEMS IN RELATION TO FOSTER CARE

Several agencies indicated that a major continuing difficulty is finding a sufficient number of qualified foster homes, although it is believed that there are untapped resources in both the white and black communities. This is especially true in regard to homes for older children and for children with moderate to extensive medical and emotional problems. At Harlem-Dowling a large number of the agency's natural parents are drug addicts so that many children need special consideration and care because they have been abused, severely neglected, and are retarded or emotionally disturbed. Many had suffered withdrawal symptoms at birth.

In Maryland, not all courts "are sold" on permanent foster care and many insist on adoption as the preferred plan--an attitude which to an important extent stems from their being money conscious. Another difficulty is securing guardianship of the child; that is, getting him legally free from natural parents. Here the agency comes up against the old and pervasive problem of parents who fail to consent to giving up the child but who do not do anything for the child, and judges who are very slow to deprive parents of custody--a situation which creates limbos for many children. It would be helpful to the agency's district offices to have their own attorneys in order to process guardianship more quickly than is now the case.* It is possible also that such attorneys would be able to influence the courts in the direction of becoming more positive in regard to permanent foster care as a good resource for some children.

VIEWS CONCERNING NATIONAL FOSTER PARENTS ASSOCIATION

Agency views concerning this new constituency were uniformly positive. It was stated in Montana, for example, that work with the Association's local branches leads the Department to believe that "The Association will become an important vehicle for strengthening services." The director of the Chicago Child Care Society voiced the hopes of most when she said that the Association "can play a constructive role in raising the quality of foster homes--something that social workers have not been able to do."

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* This need was voiced by Westchester County (New York) as well--to clear children legally. Harlem-Dowling believes that legal aspects would be facilitated if the agency rather than the court had legal custody and guardianship over children who have been legally freed from natural parents.

Chapter 4

SAN MATEO COUNTY CHILDREN IN FOSTER FAMILY CARE

CALIFORNIA CHILDREN IN FOSTER CARE

Of the approximately 263,000 children in foster family and group home care in the United States in 1970 (177:Table 6), 33,550 were located in California (1972).

(CALIFORNIA) STATE SOCIAL WELFARE BOARD STUDY

The magnitude, major problems and special characteristics of foster family care and of the children served by this welfare service emerge from a 1972 study by the (California) State Social Welfare Board. This study reviewed the files of 533 randomly selected children from seven representative counties whose combined caseloads totaled about 70% of all children in foster family care in the state (29).*

Findings published in June 1972, indicated that the cost of placing California's foster children in boarding homes and institutions was $70.5 million per year in state-county-federal funds, and that the average payment per child per month amounted to $175.58. Most of the payments (98%) were made to boarding homes as opposed to institutions. (In 1970, of 31,471 children in foster care, 27,866 were in family boarding homes). In California, foster care placements have increased by 100% in the eight years since 1964 and almost 900% since 1948. Commented the Board: "Translating this statistical data to human lives provides just one more piece of evidence of the inescapable result of a growing social disorganization; family disruption; and a breaking down of individual and family responsibility."

The following data concerning the 533 children seem particularly pertinent: about half the children are placed voluntarily; at time of placement, 44% of the children were living in their own home with mother only; almost 39% had been in placement five years or more; over 49% of the children were ten years of age or younger; only 2.3% of the parents contributed to the support of their children; foster children most frequently have three siblings; the most frequent primary reason for placement of the child was neglect; in 28.5% of the cases the number of times the child had been placed in different facilities was not known. Of the remaining 381 cases in which this information was known, 64.3% of the children had been placed in two or more facilities; in 15.6%, the length of stay in current facility was unknown. Of those cases in which this information was known, almost 25% had been in placement (current facility) five years or longer. Principal ethnic groups represented in the sample were Caucasian (excluding Mexican), 50.6%; Caucasian (Mexican), 15.6%; Black, 21.2%; American Indian, .8%; Asian-American, 0.0%; Mixed, 5.8%; in 64.7% of the cases, the children presented no current health problems. The most frequent single disability was serious emotional ailment, applicable to 40 cases (7.5% of the study group). Concerning the agency's plan for the study sample, 13.5% of the children were considered as temporary placements with return to natural parents expected. In another 20.1% (107 cases), the child had no family to return to. Of this group, 81 children were considered for long-term foster care, 10 for guardianship, and 16 for adoption.

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* San Mateo county foster children were not included in this survey.

Another group of 253 children (47.5%) were seen as unlikely to return to their parent(s). Of these 253 children, 212 were being considered for long-term foster care, 16 for guardianship and 25 for adoption. In the remaining 101 cases, the plan was either "other," "none," or "unknown." In only 17.3% of the cases did the parents visit the child at least once each month. In 38% of the cases, there were infrequent visits; in 5.2% there was some other type of contact (mail); in 32.6% of the cases, the parents did not visit and in 6.9% of the cases, the visiting record was unknown.

Among other things, the Board noted as follows:

> *...in some cases, long-term foster care will be the placement of choice rather than chance, as is now the case. However, this presupposes a realistic plan which is specifically designed for that child, rather than periodic upheavals caused by comparatively frequent moves between foster homes which now mark this program. ...The Board's study identified 360 children out of the 533 studied who had no family to return to or whose return was unlikely. It is inconceivable that of these 360 children, the plan of choice would have been long-term foster care for 293 youngsters. It is shocking that for an additional 101 children, the plan was 'unknown,' 'no plan,' or 'other' (other would not include return to family, adoption, guardianship or long-term foster care)! (29:15,28)*

THE PASADENA AND SAN DIEGO STUDIES

In addition to the State Social Welfare Board study, two other studies raise many questions about foster care in California. One study examined the records of all children in voluntary placement for at least one year prior to January 1, 1970 in the Pasadena Division of The Department of Public Social Services of Los Angeles County. Further information was obtained through interviews with foster parents of those children between the ages of one and fourteen. Additional data came from an analysis of the agency manual and interviews with workers and supervisors. The major findings were the following:

1. Of 128 children, 124 probably will never return to their parents. Of this number, 24 were in institutions or special foster homes because of emotional disturbance or mental deficiency.

2. Of the remaining 100 children placed in regular foster homes, 51 can be freed from the legal custody of their parents.

3. Out of the 78 children between the ages of one and fourteen in regular foster homes, foster parents expressed an interest in keeping 65 permanently: 16 through the use of adoption; 19, subsidized adoption; 12, guardianship; and 18, long-term foster care contracts.

4. Policies with respect to appropriate use of adoption, guardianship, and long term foster care contracts are not clearly delineated in the agency manual.

5. Although child welfare workers and supervisors are knowledgeable of alternative plans, information regarding their implementation is only fair. The workers' use of a given plan was consistent with their perception of the agency's policy in regard to that plan. Their most frequent perception was neutrality on the part of the agency.

6. There is no communication between workers and foster parents. Foster parents have no real knowledge of agency policies nor do they have clear understanding of their relation to the agency (74).

The second study addressed itself to foster parents who were licensed by the San Diego County Welfare Department and who met the following criteria: (1) foster parents were to have had a foster child in the home for one year or longer; (2) the placement was to have been initiated by the child's parents on a voluntary basis rather than initiated by a court order or some other means; and (3) the foster child was to have been between the ages of one and sixteen at the time of the study. Of the 95 foster parents meeting these criteria, 70 consented to an in-person interview (of the remaining 25, 10 were uncooperative and the rest were found as no longer meeting the criteria). The major findings were the following:

1. Of foster parents who were licensed to take all types of children into their homes, 60.5% said that they would be interested in some long-term definite arrangement: adoption for 10.5%; subsidized adoption for 2.6%; legal guardianship for 26.3%; and long-term foster care contract for 21.1%. Those foster parents who were licensed only for a particular child indicated that in 81.2% of the cases they would be interested in a long-term definite arrangement: 28.1% in adoption; 3.1% in subsidized adoption; 40.6% in legal guardianship; and 9.4% in a long-term foster care contract.

2. One reason why permanent or long-term arrangments are not consummated is the lack of information about alternative plans on the part of the foster care agency, and the resulting lack of information on this subject among

foster parents.

3. Most parents in both groups did not consider financial benefits very important in their decision to become foster parents.

4. The majority of foster parents considered information received from the agency inadequate for the job of foster parenting.

5. For those children in placement one year and longer no permanent or long-term plans are usually made. The foster parents are informed by the agency only of the temporary nature of the placement (39).

SAN MATEO CHILDREN IN FOSTER CARE--SURVEY FINDINGS

The need to carry out a survey of all children in foster care in San Mateo County, both those served by the San Mateo Department of Public Health and Welfare and by the County Probation Department, in order to fulfill the Project's objectives has already been discussed (Chapter 2). In conducting the survey, it was found that case records provided a rather limited source of information. Such vital knowledge as the number of placements for a child could not be obtained consistently, for example. Material on past and/or current health problems and on the school performance of children likewise was uneven.*

Following is a brief narrative and tabular description of findings. These data, it will be noted, are presented for the two departments as a whole, as well as for the two programs within the County Probation Department separately.** We felt that it was important to make the separation between the latter two programs because one of them, Watoto, was a special project centered on Black children. This presentation is followed by a summary table, in percentages, which compares certain characteristics of all children in foster family care in San Mateo County, in February 1971. Earlier tables present variations and similarities among the children served by the Department of Health and Welfare and the two programs within the County Probation Department.***

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* The Project responded to these limitations by devising a more comprehensive background information sheet designed to identify important facts about children in placement. Coding instructions and technical assistance can be provided to help individual agencies improve their data gathering procedures necessary for diagnostic evaluations and planning for children. In California, as elsewhere, there is lacking a usable and consistently used system for easy feed-back of pertinent information about children in care and about other client groups--a system that is essential for providing more realistically based and effective services.

** Detailed information for the central office and three district offices was developed and furnished to the Department of Public Health and Welfare.

*** In response to a request from the Probation Department, we filled out schedules for delinquent children in foster care, as well as for the dependent and neglected children in the Department's jurisdiction. In response to a request from the Department of Health and Welfare, we indicated which children in our opinion are suitable and should be considered for adoptive services, children who were then in the foster care caseload in both Departments.

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TOTAL NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN FOSTER FAMILY CARE IN SAN MATEO COUNTY, 1971

A comprehensive survey undertaken during the first three months of 1971 revealed that there were a total of 962 unduplicated cases of children in foster care in San Mateo county. Of these, 286 children were under the supervision of DSS, and 676 were under the jurisdiction of the two divisions of the Probation Department (Hillcrest: 563 children, and Watoto: 113 children). All welfare department children were dependent wards as were over 70% of the children cared for by both units of the Probation Department. Under an agreement between DSS and Probation, dependent children were to be transferred to the care of DSS (see Chapter 2).

LEGAL STATUS AND REASONS FOR PLACEMENT

The distribution of legal custody of the children is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1. LEGAL CUSTODY OF CHILD

Legal Custody of Child	Hillcrest Number	Hillcrest %	Watoto Number	Watoto %	DSS Number	DSS %
Parents have Joint Custody	184	32.68	24	21.24	62	21.68
Mother has Sole Custody	281	49.91	60	53.10	132	46.15
Father has Sole Custody	73	12.97	17	15.04	20	6.99
Guardianship	6	1.07	9	7.96	27	9.44
Relinquished for Adoption	7	1.24	-	-	37	12.94
Custody Uncertain	-	-	2	1.77	3	1.05
Ward of Department Only*	12	2.13	1	0.88	4	1.40
No Information	-	-	-	-	1	0.35
Total	563	100.00	113	100.00	286	100.00

* In addition to the 13 children who were wards of the court only, there were large numbers of foster children who were under court jurisdiction, and for whom one or both parents also had custody: 544 out of 563 children in Hillcrest, and 103 out of 113 children in Watoto were under court jurisdiction and also in the custody of one or both parents.

Among the reasons for children coming into placement, neglect or abuse was the largest single category, accounting for well over one-third of all placements. Variations between Probation and DSS in this regard were slight. Parental abandonment accounted for over one-seventh of Probation placements and 20.3% of DSS cases. In the Probation Department delinquent behavior of children was the second most important variable in child placement while this factor was negligible for DSS cases. Among other reasons for placement, hospitalization of the mother for physical or mental ailments, death of one or both parents, imprisonment, inadequacy or mental deficiency of parents, and parental unwillingness to care for a child (used to describe parent(s) who relinquish for adoption), were mentioned.

AGE, ETHNICITY AND SEX

TABLE 2. AGE OF CHILDREN

	Hillcrest		Watoto		DSS	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
0-3 Years, 0 Months	23	4.09	12	10.62	52	18.18
3-5 Years, 0 Months	31	5.51	13	11.50	29	10.14
5-7 Years, 0 Months	31	5.51	18	15.93	32	11.19
7-9 Years, 0 Months	51	9.06	11	9.73	38	13.29
9-11 Years, 0 Months	68	12.08	12	10.62	39	13.64
11-13 Years, 0 Months	66	11.72	8	7.08	29	10.14
13-15 Years, 0 Months	85	15.10	13	11.50	28	9.79
15 Years and over	207	36.77	26	23.01	39	13.64
No Information	1	0.18	-	-	-	-
Total	563	100.00	113	100.00	286	100.00

As might be expected, fewer of the Probation Department's children were under nine years of age as compared with those from DSS. However, among children from nonwhite ethnic groups, we find that of DSS's 88 minority children, 43, or almost one-half, were nine years or younger. Similarly, among 109 nonwhite Watoto children, more than 48% of the children were also in this age-group, as were 20% of the Hillcrest children. The high incidence of nonwhite children under 9 years of age underlines the utility of the Project.

Ethnic background is described in Table 3.

TABLE 3. ETHNIC BACKGROUND

Ethnic Background	Hillcrest		Watoto		DSS	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Black	35	6.22	106	93.81	69	24.13
Chicano	22	3.91	3	2.65	10	3.50
Asian American	3	0.53	-	-	6	2.10
American Indian	3	0.53	-	-	3	1.05
Caucasian	493	87.57	4	3.54	188	65.72
Other	4	0.71	-	-	8	2.80
Unknown	3	0.53	-	-	2	0.70
Total	563	100.00	113	100.00	286	100.00

A summary relating age and ethnicity to children in foster care indicates that in DSS, 52.8% of all children in care were under 9 years of age. The high incidence of minority foster children under 9 has been mentioned earlier; the detail findings are presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4. CHILDREN IN FOSTER FAMILY CARE BY ETHNIC BACKGROUND AND AGE
(In Hillcrest, Watoto and DSS--San Mateo County)

HILLCREST	Ethnic Background						
Age of Children	Black	Chicano	AsianAm.	Am.Indian	Caucasian	Other	Total
0-3 Years, 0 Mo.	1	1	1	0	20	0	23
3-5 Years, 0 Mo.	1	1	0	0	28	0	30
5-7 Years, 0 Mo.	2	0	0	0	28	1	31
7-9 Years, 0 Mo.	2	3	0	0	45	1	51
9-11 Years, 0 Mo.	4	3	0	0	61	0	68
11-13 Years, 0 Mo.	5	2	0	2	55	1	65
13-15 Years, 0 Mo.	8	1	0	1	75	0	85
15 Years and over	11	11	2	0	181	1	206
Total	34	22	3	3	493	4	559
	(6.1%)	(3.9%)	(0.5%)	(0.5%)	(88.2%)	(0.7%)	(100.0%)
WATOTO							
0-3 Years, 0 Mo.	12	0			0		12
3-5 Years, 0 Mo.	13	0			0		13
5-7 Years, 0 Mo.	18	0			1		19
7-9 Years, 0 Mo.	10	0			1		11
9-11 Years, 0 Mo.	12	0			0		12
11-13 Years, 0 Mo.	8	1			0		9
13-15 Years, 0 Mo.	12	1			1		14
15 Years and over	21	1			0		22
Total	106	3			3		112
	(94.6%)	(2.7%)			(2.7%)		(100.0%)
DSS							
0-3 Years, 0 Mo.	10	2	1	0	37	2	52
3-5 Years, 0 Mo.	10	0	0	0	18	1	29
5-7 Years, 0 Mo.	7	1	1	0	22	1	32
7-9 Years, 0 Mo.	9	2	0	0	24	1	36
9-11 Years, 0 Mo.	7	0	2	2	25	3	39
11-13 Years, 0 Mo.	9	1	0	0	19	0	29
13-15 Years, 0 Mo.	8	0	0	0	20	0	28
15 Years and over	9	4	2	1	23	0	39
Total	69	10	6	3	188	8	284
	(24.3%)	(3.5%)	(2.1%)	(1.1%)	(66.2%)	(2.8%)	(100.0%)

Of 286 children in the welfare department, 164 (57.3%) were male and 122 (42.7%) were female. In Hillcrest, 46.9% (264) of the children were male and 53.1% female. In Watoto, on the other hand, 58.4% (66) of the children in foster care were male, and 41.6% female.

SCHOOL PERFORMANCE AND HEALTH PROBLEMS

In relation to school performance, it was found that slightly under one-third of all foster children did average work, one-sixth above average work, and somewhat more than one-quarter did below average work. About one-quarter of all foster children were too young to attend school. It was also found that approximately one-half of all children in foster care had an identified physical or emotional problem.

DURATION OF PLACEMENT

One of the main objectives of the survey was to ascertain the length of stay in foster care. Table 5 presents this information for all foster children.

TABLE 5. TIME IN PLACEMENT(S)

	Hillcrest		Watoto		DSS	
Time in Placement	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Less than 1 Year	114	20.25	40	35.40	93	32.52
1-3 Years, 0 Months	187	33.21	31	27.43	95	33.22
3-5 Years, 0 Months	95	16.87	11	9.73	30	10.49
5-7 Years, 0 Months	53	9.41	7	6.19	16	5.59
7-9 Years, 0 Months	48	8.53	16	14.16	16	5.59
9-11 Years, 0 Months	40	7.10	2	1.77	19	6.64
11-13 Years, 0 Months	13	2.31	-	-	9	3.15
Over 13 Years	6	1.07	2	1.77	5	1.75
No Information	7	1.24	4	3.54	3	1.05
Total	563	100.00	113	100.00	286	100.00

We find that the children who had been in foster care more than a year constitute a very high proportion of the total: 78.5% of Hillcrest children, 61.0% of Watoto children, and 67% of children in DSS. Almost 30% of foster children in the Hillcrest group, close to 28% of children in the Watoto group, and 23% of the DSS group, had been in foster care for more than five years. Since it had been shown earlier that a proportion of these children are quite young, the impact of foster care on the lives of these children can be gauged by the following table which details the proportion of their lives these children have spent in placement.

TABLE 6. PROPORTION OF LIFE SPAN SPENT IN PLACEMENT

	Hillcrest		Watoto		DSS	
Proportion of Life Span	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Since Birth	6	1.07	8	7.08	43	15.03
More than 3/4 of Life	85	15.10	10	8.85	51	17.83
1/2 to 3/4 of Life	80	14.21	21	18.58	28	9.79
1/4 to 1/2 of Life	121	21.49	24	21.24	32	11.19
Less than 1/4 of Life	265	47.07	50	44.25	130	45.45
Unknown	6	1.07	-	-	2	0.70
Total	563	100.00	113	100.00	286	100.00

Thus, we find that almost 52% of the Hillcrest children, almost 56% of the Watoto children, and close to 54% of DSS children, spent one-fourth of their total life, or longer, in foster care.

Although foster care has been conceptualized as being of brief duration, survey results indicate that not only do sizeable numbers of children spend a large portion of their life in placement, but also that a good many spend several years in the same home. Table 7 presents these findings.

TABLE 7. DURATION OF STAY IN PRESENT HOME

Duration of Stay	Hillcrest Number	Hillcrest %	Watoto Number	Watoto %	DSS Number	DSS %
Up to 1 Year	181	32.15	56	49.56	141	49.30
1-2 Years, 0 Months	125	22.20	23	20.35	60	20.98
2-3 Years, 0 Months	90	15.99	11	9.73	16	5.59
3-4 Years, 0 Months	31	5.51	2	1.77	11	3.85
4-5 Years, 0 Months	28	4.97	3	2.65	10	3.50
5-6 Years, 0 Months	17	3.02	-	-	6	2.10
6-7 Years, 0 Months	17	3.02	-	-	7	2.45
7 or More Years	64	11.37	11	9.73	33	11.54
No Information	10	1.78	7	6.19	2	0.70
Total	563	100.00	113	100.00	286	100.00

Again we find that almost two-thirds of children in foster care (584) had been in the same home for over one year.

SUMMARY

Table 8 relates ethnic background to age of all San Mateo children in foster care, and Table 9 presents certain of their characteristics.

TABLE 8. SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF CHILDREN IN FOSTER FAMILY CARE

Age of Children	Black	Chicano	AsianAm.	Am.Indian	Caucasian	Other	Total
0-3 Years, 0 Mo.	23	3	2	0	57	2	87
3-5 Years, 0 Mo.	24	1	0	0	46	1	72
5-7 Years, 0 Mo.	27	1	1	0	51	2	82
7-9 Years, 0 Mo.	21	5	0	0	70	2	98
9-11 Years, 0 Mo.	23	3	2	2	86	3	119
11-13 Years, 0 Mo.	22	4	0	2	74	1	103
13-15 Years, 0 Mo.	28	2	0	1	96	0	127
15 Years and over	41	16	4	1	204	1	267
Total	209	35	9	6	684	12	955
	(21.9%)	(3.7%)	(1.0%)	(.6%)	(71.6%)	(1.2%)	(100.0%)

TABLE 9. SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF CHILDREN IN FOSTER FAMILY CARE IN SAN MATEO COUNTY, FEBRUARY 1971 (IN PERCENTAGES)

	Hillcrest	Watoto	DSS
Legal Status			
Mother has sole custody	49.91	53.10	46.15
Parents have joint custody	32.68	21.24	21.68
Relinquished for adoption	-	-	12.94
Court jurisdiction	95.00	92.00	28.00
Reason for Placement			
Neglect or abuse of child	36.59	44.25	31.12
Abandoned by parents	12.61	23.89	20.28
Parents unwilling to care (including relinquishment)	2.84	.88	14.34
Age of Children			
0-5 Years, 0 Months	9.60	22.12	28.32
5-13 Years, 0 Months	38.37	43.36	48.26
13 Years and Over	51.87	34.51	23.42
Minority Ethnic Background			
Black	6.22	93.81	24.13
Chicano	3.91	2.65	3.50
American Indian	.53	-	1.05
Time in Placement			
Over 1 Year	78.51	61.06	67.48
Proportion of Life Span Spent in Placement			
Less than 1/4 of Life	47.07	44.25	45.45
1/4 to Total Life	51.86	55.75	53.85
Duration of Stay in Present Home			
1 Year to 7 or more Years	66.07	44.25	50.00
Age at Initial Placement			
Less than 1 Year	-	-	26.55
Physical or Mental Problems	44.76	43.36	56.56

A great deal could be said about the significance of the data that have been presented for the children who are in foster care, for the agencies to whom the community has entrusted their care, and for the community itself. Because to do so would lead us beyond the objectives of our undertaking, we shall confine ourselves to a discussion of a few especially salient points as they relate to our Project.

1. The Project found that, at the beginning of 1971, there were 962 children in foster care in San Mateo County under the care of the San Mateo Department of Health and Welfare and the San Mateo Probation Department.

Clearly, foster care enters the lives of a sizable number of children and adults in this county--just as it does in the state of California, and in the entire United States.

2. Of these 962 children, 784 or 81.5% had been adjudged dependent, and 18.5% as delinquent. There is no doubt, therefore, that foster care at this time addresses itself primarily to dependency--with all that this suggests in terms of poverty, absence of non-economic factors essential for normal development, and psychological impairments.

3. From Table 8, we note the following:

a. Black children constituted 21.9% of all children in foster care in San Mateo County. This is in sharp contrast to the fact that at the beginning of 1970, the black population of San Mateo county was only 4.7% of that county's total population. In other words, the proportion of black children in foster care is 4.5 times the proportion of blacks in the county's population.

b. Table 8 shows that other nonwhite children--Chicano, Asian American, and American Indian--constituted 5.3% of all children in foster care in San Mateo County. This percentage is only somewhat higher than the percentage of other nonwhites living in San Mateo County--3.9%.

c. Because of the disproportionately high incidence of black children among foster children, the percentage of white foster children--71.6%--is appreciably lower than the proportion of whites in San Mateo County's population--91.4%.

4. Table 8 shows that 45.5% of black children were 9 years or younger as compared with 32.7% of Caucasian children. From these data one could infer that the proportion of minority children in foster care is likely to increase over time.

5. Of the entire group in foster care for whom the time spent in placement could be ascertained (for 948 children), 704 or almost 75% spent over a year in placement--this constituting long-term foster family care by relatively permissive standards.

6. Of the entire group in foster care for whom the proportion of life span spent in placement could be ascertained (for 954 of 962 children), 509 or more than 53% spent one-fourth of their total lives in placement.

7. Of the entire group in foster care for whom duration of stay in present home could be ascertained (for 943 of 962 children), 565 or 60% have stayed in their present home for one year to seven or more years.

8. Only 37 children of all those in foster care had been relinquished for adoption--less than 4%. Even among the foster children cared for by the San Mateo Department of Public Health and Welfare, all of them dependent, less than 13% had been relinquished for adoption.

9. Of the entire group in foster care for whom legal status could be ascertained (for 960 of 962 children), mother has sole custody of 473 or

almost half of the children; parents have joint custody of 270 or almost 29% of the children.

10. Of the entire group in foster care for whom reasons for placement could be determined (for 950 of 962 children), neglect or abuse was the major reason for 345 (more than 36%); while abandonment by parents of another 156 youngsters (more than 16% of the total) was the second major cause. These data, combined with those in 9 above, give some indication of the problems that these children have and are experiencing, and shed some light on the fact that half of them, 464 (of 962), were found to have an identifiable physical or emotional problem.

11. The survey also firmly establishes the fact that in San Mateo, as elsewhere in the country, long-term care in substitute homes (defined here as being in placement at least a year) is a reality for a majority of foster children. Hence, services and planning for them must face this factor squarely and as early as it is possible to diagnose its presence and characteristics. Failure to do so increases the danger of these children remaining in limbo, often a vague situation in which these children's needs remain unmet at the most vulnerable and formative time of their lives.

SAN MATEO COUNTY FOSTER CHILDREN SERVED BY THE PROJECT

In view of the objectives of the Project, it was to be expected that certain characteristics of children served would differ from the total population of children in foster care in the county. The Project's focus on minority children under nine years of age established selection criteria which obviously do not apply to the foster care population in general. In the material that follows the characteristics of Project children are summarized and compared with those of other children in foster care in San Mateo County. (The Project accepted 50 children, however, the tables that follow describe only 49 children because one child was returned to the agency after a careful evaluation by Project staff determined that he did not meet Project service criteria.)

LEGAL STATUS AND REASONS FOR PLACEMENT

In terms of legal status, Project children were quite similar to the population of foster children in the county. Among Project children, both parents had custody in one-fifth of the cases, mother had sole custody in over 60%, and court wardship accounted for 10%. These figures are in line with DSS where both parents, or the mother, had custody of close to 68% of all children, and with Probation where mother, or both parents, had custody of slightly over 80% of all children.

Reasons for placement of Project children varied somewhat from those affecting children in the survey. Neglect or abuse accounted for 53% of Project children as compared with somewhat over one-third of children in the survey, while the proportion of abandoned children was similar for both the Project sample and the foster care population. Since Project children were predominantly under nine years of age, delinquent behavior was not a factor in placement as it was with older children cared for by the Probation Department.

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AGE, ETHNICITY AND SEX

In relation to age, Project children differed by plan from foster children served in the county. Table 10 presents the findings.

TABLE 10. AGE OF PROJECT CHILDREN

Age	Number	% of Total
0-3 Years, 0 Months	10	20.41
3-5 Years, 0 Months	10	20.41
5-7 Years, 0 Months	6	12.24
7-9 Years, 0 Months	10	20.41
9-11 Years, 0 Months	8	16.33
11-13 Years, 0 Months	4	8.16
13-15 Years, 0 Months	1	2.04
Total	49	100.00

The ethnic background of Project children was composed largely of non-white ethnic minority children in line with the service goals of the Project. The data are summarized in Table 11.

TABLE 11. ETHNIC BACKGROUND OF PROJECT CHILDREN

Ethnic Background	Number	% of Total
Black	39	79.60
Caucasian	4	8.16
Other (Filipino, or racially mixed, e.g. Chinese-Black)	6	12.24
Total	49	100.00

Project children contained a slightly higher percentage of female children (67.4%) than foster children in the county.

SCHOOL PERFORMANCE AND HEALTH PROBLEMS

The level of school performance was comparable for both groups. Since the Project had a much larger proportion of pre-school children in line with its age criterion, almost 43% of Project children were of pre-school age as compared with approximately 25% of foster children in the county. Project children had considerably fewer identified health problems (30.6%) than did all children in foster care where almost half had a specific medical or emotional problem.

DURATION OF PLACEMENT

The time spent by Project children in placement is shown in Table 12. Even though the majority of Project children (36 of 49 children) were under 9 years of age, 53% of them spent more than a year in placement. Most of these long-term placements had already continued for one to three years.

As to the proportion of their life span spent in placement, we find that 55.1% of Project children and 46.2% of all foster children had been in placement less than one-quarter of their lives. However, in the Project nine of 49 children had been in placement since birth (18.4%), and the remainder, 26.5%, had spent more than one-quarter of their lives in placement.

TABLE 12. TIME IN PLACEMENT(S) OF PROJECT CHILDREN

Time in Placement	Number	% of Total
Less than 1 Year	23	46.95
1-3 Years, 0 Months	20	40.81
3-5 Years, 0 Months	2	4.08
5-7 Years, 0 Months	1	2.04
7-9 Years, 0 Months	3	6.12
Total	49	100.00

Figures on duration of stay in the present home (Table 13) were similar for Project and survey children.

TABLE 13. DURATION OF STAY IN PRESENT HOME OF PROJECT CHILDREN

Duration of Stay	Number	% of Total
Up to 1 Year	26	53.06
1-2 Years, 0 Months	15	30.62
2-3 Years, 0 Months	5	10.20
6-7 Years, 0 Months	3	6.12
Total	49	100.00

The age of Project children at initial placement is presented in Table 14. The fact that more than 55% of the children were of pre-school age at time of initial placement indicates the primordial importance of sound and timely planning in foster care--planning that will undoubtedly affect their development and influence the course of their lives.

TABLE 14. AGE AT INITIAL PLACEMENT OF PROJECT CHILDREN

Age	Number	% of Total
Less than One Year	12	24.49
1-3 Years, 0 Months	8	16.33
3-5 Years, 0 Months	7	14.29
5-7 Years, 0 Months	0	-
7-10 Years, 0 Months	8	16.32
10-13 Years, 0 Months	13	26.53
13-16 Years, 0 Months	1	2.04
Total	49	100.00

SUMMARY

In reviewing the characteristics of children served by the Project, attention again must be drawn to the criteria with respect to ethnic background and to age which guided the selection of children to be served. The age of the children obviously had a bearing on related variables such as proportion of life span spent in placement, duration of placement, and year in which placed.

The facts that Project children constituted only about 5% of children in foster care in the county, and that a majority were drawn from the Watoto division of the Probation Department, represent some realistic barriers to a fully representative sample of the foster child population. However, the intent of the Project was to focus on nonwhite children under nine years of age, and this focus precluded the selection of a random sample.

The reality that more children came to the Project from Watoto than from DSS was not anticipated at the outset of the service phase of the Project, but was dictated by pressures of time and of service goals.

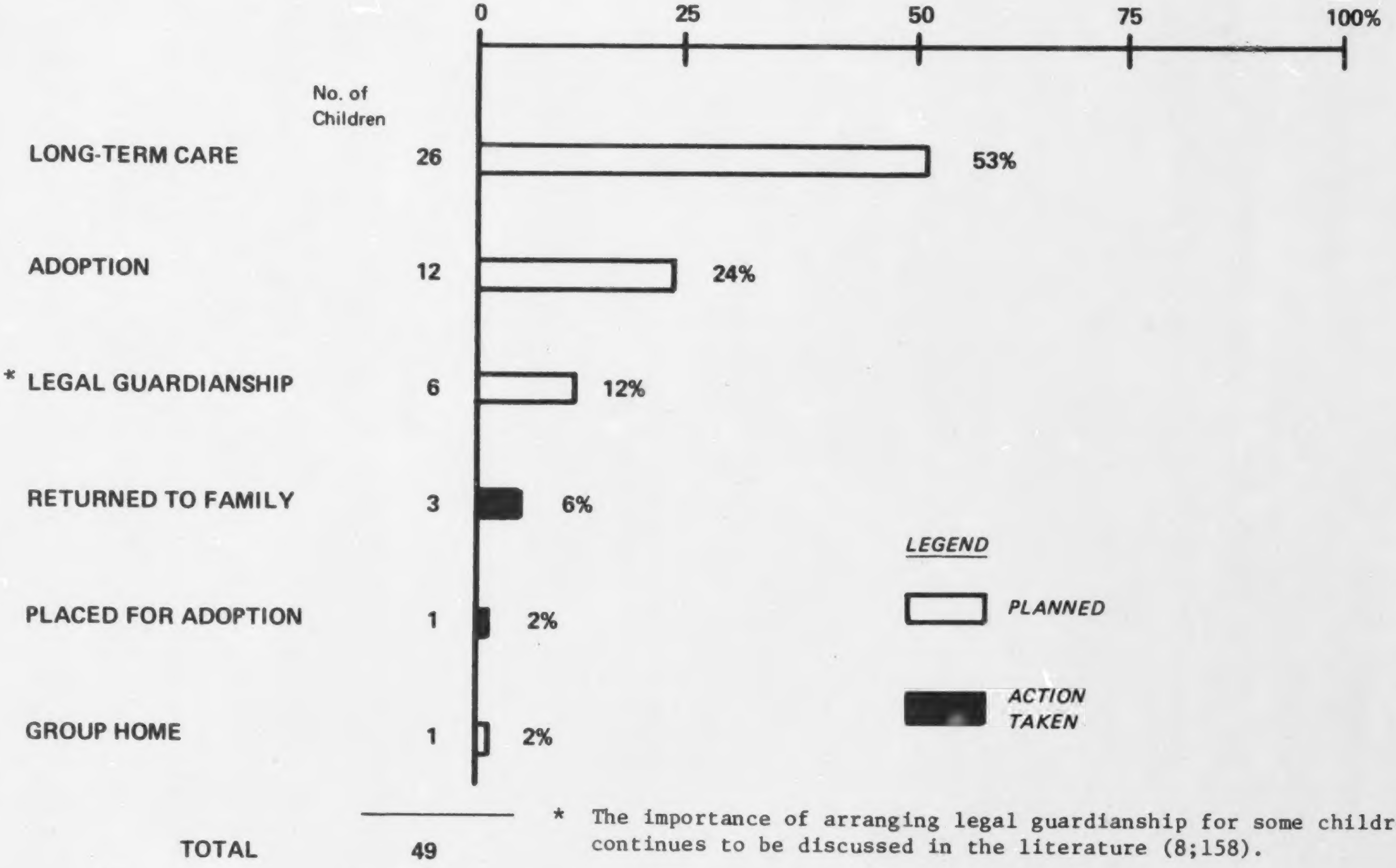
Despite these limitations, Project children were comparable to all children in foster care in San Mateo County with respect to legal status, sex, and school performance. They contained a larger proportion who had been neglected or abused, but at the same time, they had considerably fewer health problems. As noted earlier, with respect to age, and age-related variables associated with duration of placement, Project children differed by design. This was also the reason for the ethnic composition of the Project group. Both demographic projections and our own survey findings and its implications confirm that the children for whom the Project provided services will constitute a growing segment of the foster care population in the future.

SERVICES AND PLANNING FOR THE PROJECT CHILDREN

It should be noted that Project staff and students were not involved in intake: the children who entered the Project either were already receiving service or had already been accepted for service. Decision-making and planning that would bring about permanent arrangements for them formed the basis of service in the Project. These processes ranged over a period of five to seventeen months and involved both students and staff, as well as Watoto and DSS personnel and other agencies in the community when called upon. Chart 4-1

Chart 1–1

SERVICES FOR PROJECT CHILDREN ... Actions Planned and Taken



* The importance of arranging legal guardianship for some children continues to be discussed in the literature (8;158).

presents the results.

It can be seen from Chart 4-1 that during their sojourn in the Project, four children were removed from foster care: one was placed for adoption and three were returned to their mothers. These four children had all been voluntary placements. Two of the returned children were black; the child placed in adoption and one returned child were white. For 26 children, or 53% of the entire group, the plan called for continuing in long-term foster family care. Of these 26 children, two were white, two were Filipino, and 22 were black. Among them, 11 had been voluntary placements, while 15 were dependents of the court. They included youngsters from two to thirteen years of age who had been placed in foster homes between 1963 and 1971. The Project recommended adoption, subsidized and unsubsidized, for 12 children or about 25% of the total. This group of twelve children was composed of eleven black and one white child and ranged in age between two and five. Guardianship was suggested for six children, all black, ranging in age from two to eight. A group home was recommended for a 13 year old black unmarried mother.

It appears from the Project's experience that for those children who are already in the child welfare services network, long-term foster family care is the best plan for roughly half. These children probably include some who would not need to remain in such care if planning at time of initial intake had been more decisively and skillfully undertaken. But at this point in their life situations, long-term care appears to be the best service for them. It is important to emphasize, however, that the Project recommended adoption for a quarter of the children and that this was thought desirable and possible for children who are no longer infants.*

Illustrative cases that follow show more vividly than statistics what was involved. (Throughout this report, all names in cases have been changed.)

TWO CHILDREN RETURNED TO THEIR NATURAL MOTHER (PROJECT STUDENT'S REPORT)

Barbara Davidson (21 years old) has been in contact with the Department of Social Service since 1966 when she was pregnant with Debra, her first child. The father was a 27 year old married Navy man who is currently contributing $40.00 a month for Debra's support. Debra was cared for by Mrs. Davidson, Barbara's mother, while Barbara went to school.

Carolyn was born on March 20, 1968. The mother wished to leave home against her own mother's wishes and sought foster care for herself and her children. In April she married Mark Elkin, the father of Carolyn, in what appeared to be a way of escaping from home. This marriage ended in divorce.

From April 10 to April 17, Barbara was in the psychiatric ward of the County Hospital. The children were in shelter care from April to May 1970. In June the mother returned to the hospital for three days and began a psychiatric day care program. Because the mother felt she could not take proper care of her daughters at this time and also because the grandmother would take only Debra in her care, the mother voluntarily placed the children together in full time foster care in July 1970.

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* The Project's experience reemphasizes the importance of providing a diversified network of services for children. This multiple-service aspect of children's need continues to be widely reported in the literature (48).

Barbara was diagnosed by her psychiatrist as having "schizophrenic reaction, chronic undifferentiated type." She remained under psychiatric care until January 1971 when she felt she no longer needed a psychiatrist. She showed much improvement emotionally. She is presently engaged, and on March 5, 1972, removed her children from foster care. They are now living together with their mother as a family unit.

Debra and Carclyn had been placed with Frank and Wilma Welch on July 15, 1970. Carolyn, age 4, was developing well and quite normally. While she was healthy and happy, she had actively protested being separated from her mother.

Debra entered kindergarten in September of 1971 and she had been described as a discipline problem both at school and at her foster home. Her teacher, Mrs. Wright, said that Debra had the ability but no interest in schoolwork; she would rather sing and play. Mrs. Wright strongly suggested psychological testing to determine the source of Debra's difficulties. Debra's problematic behavior was an added incentive for the children's mother to have her children returned to her, as the mother felt this behavior stemmed from Debra missing her.

The foster parents, Mr. and Mrs. Welch, live in a modern, spacious home which is well cared for. Mr. Welch, who is 73 years old, is interested in gardening and watching sporting events on television. Because of his absorption in these areas, the children and the rest of the household were mainly the domain of Mrs. Welch.

This foster mother, who is 54 years old, was kind and generous, but also inclined to be somewhat rigid and to insist on maintaining discipline in the home. She worked closely with Debra's teacher and helped the child with her homework. She also worked very well with the agency and the natural mother, and welcomed visits and calls to the children by their mother.

Because Debra was upsetting the whole household, Mrs. Welch had asked that she and Carolyn be removed from her home--a request with which Mrs. Davidson complied as noted earlier.

Supportive care should be given to the natural mother in an effort to aid her in caring for two active children and effecting a successful reunification. In addition, testing and support for the hyperactive child are also required.

CASE OF A CHILD FOR WHOM THE PLAN CALLS FOR REMAINING IN LONG-TERM CARE (PROJECT STUDENT'S REPORT)

Mrs. G. (age 33), the mother of Marie and Martin, is an attractive, educated, divorced Filipino woman. She is an impulsive, immature, dependent person who has difficulty maintaining mature relations with adults and her own children alike. She has been unable to care for her children for any length of time. In 1970, she contracted pulmonary tuberculosis, was hospitalized, and placed her children in foster care.

Marie (age 11) and Martin (age 8) have made an excellent adjustment to their foster home and are handling separation from their mother well. They are loving and cooperative at home, and their school grades and conduct are above average. The children look forward to their weekly visits with their natural mother and speak affectionately of her. They have accepted foster care easily since this is not their first experience living away from their mother; they are not emotionally dependent upon her.

Mr. and Mrs. S. are foster parents for six children including Marie and Martin. They live in an attractive and comfortable home. They enjoy a close relationship with their married daughter and her family. Both foster parents participate actively in child rearing. They are sensitive, affectionate people who provide excellent physical, emotional and medical care for their family. They are especially fond of Marie and Martin and would willingly provide long term care for them.

Although Mrs. G. is now medically able to assume responsibility for her two children, she has made no effort to do so. This is not surprising when one notes that in the eleven years that she has been a mother, Mrs. G. has never had full responsibility for her children. She always enlisted the aid of family members to supervise and care for her youngsters.

Because of deep-seated emotional insecurity and dependency needs, Mrs. G. is unable to assume any significant role in the management of her own affairs or those of her children. Her manipulative behavior precludes major insight into her own problems. Long-term foster care provides the best solution for this family. This arrangement allows excellent care for the children, while the natural mother maintains her relatively constant, albeit superficial contact with them.

Should Mrs. G. gain the insight and desire to care for her children (either independently with intensive therapy and/or by re-marriage), then reunification with Marie and Martin would be possible.

CASE OF A CHILD FOR WHOM PLAN CALLS FOR PLACEMENT IN ADOPTION (PROJECT STUDENT'S REPORT)

David was born in 1966 to Linda and James Myers. Shortly thereafter, as a result of what Mr. Myers has described as his ex-wife's immature behavior and instability, the Myers' marriage was dissolved. The mother obtained custody of David but she was confronted with numerous emotional and financial problems caused by her instability. She would easily and frequently lose her temper with David and resorted to constantly leaving him with babysitters. The emotional turmoil and rejection resulted in David's becoming a bedwetter and a hyperactive child and led to his placement in foster care in April 1971.

The decrease in the symptomatic manifestations of David's insecurity would indicate that he is gaining in emotional growth and adjustment in his foster home. His bedwetting has immensely decreased to the point of only an occasional wet night and his hyperactivity is also lessening. David's natural father is presently living in Southern California. He has remarried and he and his new wife have recently had a child. The father has had no contact with David and although unable to care for him, has expressed a willingness on his part to try and see that David be placed in a "stable home".

David had been in the home of John and Martha Richards until April of 1972. His adjustment in this home was excellent. He was very close to the other children; Sharon 4, Linda 2, and Mary 6, a foster child who has since left the home. The Richards are a very close family and David has truly been a part of it the last year. Mrs. Richards' mother has become seriously ill and she and her husband will be moving into the Richards home. A foster child at this point will be too much for her to handle and she has requested a change of placement for David.

When David's teacher, Mrs. Joan Lane, heard about David leaving the Richards', she expressed a desire to have him come to her home. Joan Lane is in her early 40's and has taught kindergarten for the past six years. This is her second marriage. The three children in the home are hers by her first husband. She has been David's teacher for the past year and has come to truly love him as well as understand his problems. Scott Lane is a man in his late 40's who has two daughters (18 and 19) by a first marriage, who live with their mother.

The children in the home are Sally 16, Mike 13, and Richie 12. They also regard David with a great deal of affection.

The Lanes' home is lovely and spacious and provides a healthy and harmonious environment for children and adults, alike.

The Lanes were licensed for the foster care of David. They indicated an intent to adopt him. David has become very attached to them and has expressed a desire to make his home with this family.

David was placed in the Lane home in the first week of April 1972. During the second week of April, the mother made contact for the first time. She expressed a feeling of guilt about not making contact with David earlier and said that she is now ready to take him back. Although she appears to be rather evasive and impulsive, a "con-artist", according to the Richards and the Lanes, her statements indicate that she plans to assume responsibility for David at the end of May 1972. She says that she has a full-time job and is looking into the possibility of buying a home.

If David were to remain in the foster home, he would be given everything a child needs to grow into a healthy, well adjusted adult. Returning him to his mother does not contain this assuredness, but rather indicates the contrary. The Lanes are excellent parents and the possibility of David being adopted should be explored with them and Mrs. Myers.

CASE OF A CHILD FOR WHOM PLAN CALLS FOR ARRANGEMENT OF LEGAL GUARDIANSHIP (PROJECT STUDENT'S REPORT)

Mary Ann, age 4, and John Lee, age 2, came to agency attention in November 1969, when their mother was incarcerated for shoplifting. They were made dependents of the court and placed in the foster home of Mr. and Mrs. P. Legal custody remained with the natural mother, Mrs. Nancy M.

Mrs. M., who never completed high school, has had four children by three different men. These fathers have never assumed parental responsibilities. Presently at age 21, the natural mother is struggling to maintain a home for her two youngest children, Connie and Orlandus. She is a dependent, immature and troubled person who is the product of a destructive and unstable family. Her last few years have been stormy, marred by brief marriages, out-of-wedlock pregnancies and frequent conflicts with the law. During the past year, she has had little contact with Mary and John. Although she occasionally talks of having them returned to her care, she realizes this is unrealistic unless dramatic changes occur in her life.

Mary Ann and John are two of six children in the P. family. They are the only foster children there and have made an excellent adjustment in the home. Mary Ann is an outgoing, healthy and normal child. John, a friendly toddler, may have brain damage due to a blow on the head he received while in the care of his natural mother. His medical problems are under evaluation at this time.

The P.'s are in their early thirties and have a well-adjusted family life. Although Mr. P. is presently unemployed, he is taking Police Science, a two year course. Mr. and Mrs. P. are excellent parents who have made Mary Ann and John an integral part of their family. The recommendation of legal guardianship should be considered in this case with possible future exploration of subsidized adoption. This arrangement would secure the children a permanent place in this family and provide financial help for any medical problems John may have. In addition, under this plan the natural mother could see these children and gradually develop a more meaningful relationship with them.

OBJECTIVE II:

TO ASSESS THE READINESS OF SENIORS MAJORING IN SOCIAL WORK IN A SPECIFIC UNDERGRADUATE CURRICULUM TO PROVIDE DIRECT CHILD WELFARE SERVICES, GIVEN CERTAIN TRAINING CONDITIONS AND EDUCATIONAL REQUIREMENTS--CHAPTERS 5, 6 AND 7.

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Chapter 5

UNDERGRADUATE SOCIAL WORK STUDENTS IN THE PROJECT

In order to understand how students working toward their baccalaureate degrees in social work at San Francisco are being educated and trained, it is necessary to review briefly major recent developments in undergraduate social work education.

UNDERGRADUATE SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION: NATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS

GUIDELINES AND STANDARDS

The national standard-setting and accrediting body in social work education is the Council on Social Work Education (hereafter referred to as the "Council.") In 1959 the Council published the results of a massive study of educational objectives of social work (20). In line with its findings, the Council recommended to schools of social work that they consider implementing an undergraduate-graduate continuum that would encompass three stages of professional preparation: (a) a two-year undergraduate social welfare program intended to provide a sound overall knowledge base; (b) teaching of this knowledge with a focus on values and social policy; and (c) teaching the application of social work methods and skills. It was suggested that stages (b) and (c) be sequential so that stage (b) could be taught either in the last year of an undergraduate program or in the first year of an MSW program. These recommendations were rejected. Two years later, however, the first consultant in undergraduate social welfare education was employed by the Council, but the guidelines that followed encouraged "only the development of social welfare content, emphasizing 'learning about' rather than 'learning to do'" (187:4).

During the 1960s the social work profession was preoccupied with the shortage of MSW social workers (174). At that time, there was considerable sentiment that only the MSW degree qualified a person for professional social work practice, although it was recognized that the bulk of services delivered in public agencies was provided by persons who had a BA degree, usually without any undergraduate social work content (174:ch.viii). (In 1972, nationally, 80% of direct services was delivered by personnel with less than a master's degree (10). MSW social workers contended that such services did not constitute professional social work practice. As manpower needs of the nation continued to demand a larger number of skilled persons in its social service system, the number of undergraduate programs in social welfare increased dramatically.) "In the ten-year period from 1960 to 1970 undergraduate program membership in the Council increased in excess of 160% as compared to a graduate increase of only about 20%" (10:12). Concurrently, opinions about the role of undergraduate social work education shifted, but only slowly.

The Council's 1967 guidelines for undergraduate programs recommended field experience as being desirable, but not required; suggested a sequence of courses in social welfare, but did not require faculty teaching them to have expertise in social work; recognized preparation for employment in the field of social welfare as one of four possible goals for the undergraduate program, but did not bar from constituent membership programs without such a goal. In short, programs were not yet practice-oriented, nor was learning to *do* social work at the beginning practice level seen as the goal of field instruction.

Following these halting steps, changes in thinking gained momentum, both among practitioners and educators. Writing in 1968, Adler and Trobe urged that "schools of social work and social agencies should work for expansion of undergraduate programs for preprofessional education" (3:346), because the wide spectrum of needs presented by clients requires different degrees of staff knowledge and skills. In the same year, Boehm pointed to the increasing recognition "not only that some social work functions can be performed by personnel with a bachelor's degree, but also that education with social work relevance and pertinence can and must be provided not only on the graduate but also on the undergraduate level" (19:455). In 1970, Lawder wrote that fear about the acceptance of nonprofessionals had given way to "a practical approach to a differentiation of responsibilities and tasks" (95:158). In 1971, Mossman took the position that "use of personnel with bachelor's degrees is no longer a matter of expediency..but is based on recognized contributions they can make. If there were no shortage of workers with graduate professional degrees, there would still be a valid role for BSWs" (135:110)--a sentiment also voiced by Pins (148).

Finally in 1971, the Council developed course content around "learning to do"--the teaching of practice skills in undergraduate programs in social welfare and other helping services (101). A few months later, the Council was referring to undergraduate program in social *work*, rather than social *welfare* (47). The Council's 1971 criteria required a coherent educational program, including: (a) a broad liberal arts base; (b) courses with social work content; and (c) appropriate educationally directed field instruction with direct engagement in service activities designed to meet the stated educational objectives. In the same year, the NASW admission requirements were changed to include baccalaureate degree holders. As noted by Schorr at that time,

> *Many social work jobs are to be filled by people with undergraduate degrees. ...The undergraduate curricula of schools of social work, progressively enriched, are likely to provide the basic training for social work practice. Graduate schools will train for professional leadership rather than for practice. Fewer schools will grant the MSW, a credential that will be increasingly hard to explain. In time, graduate schools of social work will replace the master's degree with a doctoral degree. (4:2)*

On March 1, 1973, the Council's House of Delegates accepted the "Proposed Standards for the Evaluation of Undergraduate Programs in Social Work," to become effective July 1, 1974 (41). The objectives of these programs were stated as follows:

> *Program objectives shall reflect the values of the profession of social work. Preparation for beginning social work practice must be a stated educational objective of an undergraduate social work program. The program shall further specify its objectives in relation to: the mission of the educational institution of which it is a part, the human needs in the region identified by the parent institution as its service area; and its student body. (Underscoring added).*

Among other requirements, an educational program that prepares for beginning practice must demonstrate that it "requires educationally directed field instruction with engagement in direct service activities for at least 300 to 400 clock hours for which academic credit commensurate with the time invested is given." This requirement substantially raised the amount of time spent by students in the field in most of the undergraduate curricula operative at that time.

Thus we find the social work profession entering the decade of the 1970s with the range of educational alternatives for practice considerably broadened. There is a growing number of doctoral programs beyond the master's degree preparing for advanced practice, teaching and research, as well as bachelor degree programs designed to equip their graduates for professional practice. There are also social work training programs at the junior college level to prepare for para-professional practice (guidelines for Associate Arts Community Service Degrees had been developed by 1969).

Under the impetus of such federal programs as Headstart, we also find that persons without formal education but familiar with a particular ethnic sub-culture are widely used to assist social workers and other professionals. The acceptance of various educational levels both above and below the MSW degree raises obvious questions about specialization of function and rational division of tasks among different groups engaged in rendering social services--as well as about the knowledge and skill levels needed by persons who will be used differentially in practice, and about appropriate linkages between the educational segments that will prepare for practice.

EDUCATIONAL LEVELS AND PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCE

The challenging responsibility for progressively enriching undergraduate social work curricula must take into account empirical evidence which indicates that in the United States individuals with different levels of education frequently perform the same tasks (83).* Furthermore, empirical findings have

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* Apparently, this is true in Great Britain as well: the author of a 1970 study of foster care in that country found that "trained child care staff performed their duties in much the same ways as their untrained colleagues. ...foster care practice varied more among departments rather than between trained and untrained staff within the same department" (56:226-27).

Chart 5–1

DEVELOPMENTS IN UNDERGRADUATE SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

From a Humanitarian to a Liberal Professional

1959 . . . Council on Social Work Education recommends an undergraduate continuum to encompass:

- *A two-year undergraduate program to provide a sound knowledge base;*
- *Focus on values and social policy;*
- *Application of methods and skills*

Rejected

1962 . . . Council guidelines emphasize "Learning about," not "Learning to do"

. . Council undergraduate program membership increases 160%; graduate, 20%

1967 . . . Council guidelines recommend field experience as desirable, but not required

1969 . . . Guidelines for Associate Arts Community Service Degrees developed

. . Recognition given that BA personnel is capable of distinct contributions

1971 . . . Council develops course content around "Learning to do"

. . NASW admission requirements change to include BA degree holders

1973 . . . Council approves standards for evaluation of undergraduate programs which require preparation for practice as an educational objective failed to document conclusively that MSW social workers render a professional service superior to that of individuals without graduate degrees (26).

Such findings have raised questions about the graduate level and content of MSW programs. Among suggestions for improvement have been proposals for standard entrance examinations for students to give some assurance that all entering students, in some way, had acquired the necessary basic knowledge to permit offering a truly advanced curriculum in graduate schools. But this idea was never implemented. Neither has anything been done about assigning students in graduate programs to courses in such a way as to bring together those who have a rich background in the sciences regarded as basic to social work in order to teach them separately from students with relatively little in the way of such preparation (85). It seems reasonable to suppose that if MSW students came from undergraduate programs in social work that offered a basic core of desired knowledge and skills, this problem would not arise and graduate education would not have to resort to a survey approach in the first year of the MSW program, with its shallow treatment of subject matter that does not build on prior knowledge.

THE SOCIAL WORK EDUCATIONAL CONTINUUM

Another factor that must be kept in mind in improving undergraduate curricula relates to a problem commented on in the Council's 1959 study of educational objectives:

> *The project findings reveal that there is a good deal of unprofitable duplication between the undergraduate and graduate levels of education in social work today, particularly during the first year of graduate study. (20:v.I, 174-75)*

The educational implications of these findings are reemphasized by a recent undergraduate field experience demonstration project which found that more than 50% of the functions performed by MSWs could be performed by undergraduates (188).

It was not until 1969, however, that the NIMH awarded a grant to San Diego, to conduct an experimental continuum program as part of a larger effort to improve the quality of undergraduate social work education. (Similar grants were awarded to the schools of social work at Adelphi University and at the University of Wisconsin). Juniors and seniors in the undergraduate social welfare sequence were placed in this group (147), and were given the educational content of the first year of graduate school in their undergraduate social work education. Subsequently, they were enrolled in a 12-month graduate program which was practically identical to the second year of the standard MSW program (184).

THE UNDERGRADUATE SOCIAL WORK CURRICULUM AT SAN FRANCISCO

An undergraduate "major" in social work has existed at San Francisco since the 1930s. Efforts to develop and upgrade its content were intensified in the 1950s, and in 1960, Madison pioneered with one of the first undergraduate curricula designed to provide not only social work knowledge content and observation of practice, but also a practicum (application of skills) for undergraduates (111)

PURPOSES AND OBJECTIVES OF THE SAN FRANCISCO UNDERGRADUATE CURRICULUM

In 1970, when the Project reported on here was initiated, the undergraduate curriculum had three objectives:

1. to provide learning experiences necessary for professional social work practice and entry into graduate professional education;

2. to afford students the opportunity to examine the place and function of the institution of social welfare in a modern society;

3. with faculty consultation, to enable students to determine a program congruent with their career and personal goals.

The specific educational goals of the curriculum require:

1. That students develop a beginning knowledge and understanding of:
    a. social welfare as a constantly changing social institution;
    b. the relation of social welfare to other helping services;
    c. the economic, political, psychological, cultural, and historical influences upon social work practice and social welfare programs;
    d. the scientific method of problem assessment crucial to all social work methodologies;
    e. social work methods which use a scientific approach in combining objectivity for situation and empathy for person;
    f. the relationship between social work values and professional practice;
    g. contemporary social problems;
    h. the legal rights of recipients of service; choice of programs, rights concerning benefits;
    i. laws pertaining to the administration of social welfare programs;
    j. the necessity for client participation in decision-making;
    k. differing roles a worker assumes in his efforts to assist clients;
    l. value conflicts and practice dilemmas faced in the practice of social work;
    m. the significance and effect of indigenous organizations such as consumer rights groups on the delivery of service.

2. That students develop social work skills required by beginning practice which stress an ability:

a. to apply knowledge of individual and social behavior in order to make action plans in regard to problems, stating the objectives of intervention in a precise and manageable form;

b. to carry out these plans either directly, by referral to appropriate agencies, or in joint efforts with other groups;

c. to resist compromises that may erode values and services and are thereby detrimental to the well-being of clients;

d. to evaluate the outcomes of worker interventions on behalf of and in partnership with recipients of service;

e. to indicate in precise and meaningful terms the reasons for successes and failures in reaching the objectives of intervention.

These educational goals were deemed to be substantially attainable by students who fulfill three requirements: (1) completion of the General Education curriculum at the University, or its equivalent at another college, and attainment of junior standing at the University; (2) completion of 27 units of required courses with social work content, divided among 15 units of classroom and 12 units of field instruction; and (3) completion of 9-12 units of electives, selected under advisement, and related to student interest and practice goals. The overall philosophy guiding teaching in this curriculum is that "on the undergraduate level, the joining of professional and liberal education is confirmed. If anything, it is this that must be protected and strengthened as undergraduate social work education becomes increasingly professionalized" (47:13).

FIELD INSTRUCTION

This part of the curriculum is designed to contribute importantly toward all the goals listed above; however, greatest emphasis is placed on integrating knowledge, theory and understanding derived from foundation courses and from content areas included in the major into social work skills required by beginning professional practice. As defined by Madison (111:48), skill (doing, in contrast to knowing or feeling) "connotes the use of knowledge, values and methodology appropriately in problem-solving with a (considerable) degree of facility and efficiency. Skill ...involves a (large) element of art and represents a (fairly) deep and (pervasive) internalization of knowledge and values in the personality as expressed in the social worker's use of himself as the instrument of professional help."

Students begin field instruction in their senior year (exceptions may be made for a few juniors) and continue for two semesters, that is, for a total of approximately 240 hours. They are required to spend at least eight hours weekly in the agency in which they are placed. An integrative backup seminar, which meets on campus for two hours each week, accompanies and is part of field instruction. Since communication, both verbal and written, is an effective helping skill, one of the seminar objectives is to develop it.

To this end, each student prepares written and oral reports of his work in the field for presentation to the instructor, to the supervisor and to the total seminar.

Faculty and students involved in the San Francisco curriculum have adhered to the view that beyond being a process in which the student develops self-awareness and socialization toward the profession, field instruction must be a means for building competency for practice. Professional competency, in turn, involves more than the assertion of knowledge not possessed by non-professionals: it involves also the possession of more effective skills. Consistent efforts have been made to individualize the student's learning needs, and to provide an opportunity for each student to put his knowledge to use in the service of others and thus to experience himself in the professional role. In this segment of the curriculum, students are educated not so much by what they hear as by what they do and are.

In field instruction, "learning of skills is tied to the purposes of an activity" (122:v.I,85). High priority is assigned to interventive skills. The student observes, interviews, collects information, records, and performs certain tasks or work activities of graduated complexity as the field placement progresses. In this process, he experiences his first actual exposure to social work values and to the dilemmas that they may produce in practice. As the student is confronted with situations that challenge his own attitudes and values, he acquires and/or deepens his self-knowledge. A somewhat different set of skills has to do with developing understanding and ability to apply knowledge of interacting social and service delivery systems to the situations of clients, including the ability to transmit this knowledge to the client so that the client himself can use it. This means that the student must have some grounding in principles of administration and organization; must know how to acquire knowledge about community resources; must be able to interact constructively with clients from various cultures, with varying needs, dispositions, levels of emotional ability and intellectual acuity; and must be able "to consider the effectiveness of the services provided in relation to client needs and their effect on client situations, in order to recognize when the agency program and operation are not sufficiently effective. He knows how to bring this appropriately to the attention of the agency in order to begin the process of change and improvement. This involves the ability to relate to the respective agency staff in a facilitating manner" (47:61). The latter is an important part of the student's advocacy role.

The seminar stresses analytical skill--the ability to look critically at facts or circumstances, to assign priorities to alternatives, to make decisions. Its objective is to deepen substantive knowledge in regard to social legislation, utilization of the network of community services, agency inter-relationships, and bureaucratic structure and functioning. In the seminar, field instruction is related to classroom instruction, thereby providing a unique opportunity for the student to learn both theory and practice, and thus to develop and integrate learning that engages both his cognitive and affective powers. The student is encouraged and helped to exercise judgment, initiative, originality and independence--qualities deemed essential in a professional.

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STUDENTS IN THE PROJECT

At San Francisco, as in most other colleges and universities that offer an undergraduate social work concentration, college regulations preclude any selection procedures to be applied to students who wish to major in social work--every student with a C average can request admission. In selecting a field work placement for a student, however, a number of factors are taken into account, such as student preferences, prior experience, practice goals, the need to experience a variety of settings (if the student had prior experience).

CHARACTERISTICS OF PROJECT STUDENTS

Of the 30 students who participated in the Project, only two were men and only two were juniors. In terms of ethnic background, 14 were white, 12 were black, one Filipino, one Pakistani, one Latino, and one American Indian mixture. It should be noted that a special effort was made to acquaint non-white students with the Project's involvement in service to minority children in the hope that such students would be attracted to it.

The thirty students ranged in age from 21 to 50, the mean age being 28 years. Nineteen were single, nine were married and living with spouses, and two were divorced.

TABLE 15. GRADE POINT AVERAGE OF PROJECT STUDENTS

GPA	Number
2.00-2.25	1
2.26-2.50	2
2.51-2.75	3
2.76-3.00	12
3.01-3.25	4
3.26-3.50	2
3.51 and over	6
Total	30

Thus, a majority, eighteen students, were average in academic achievement, with some among them approaching or reaching the B level. Twelve students were in the B category, with six in this group approaching the A level. It should be added that five of the students had made the Dean's list at some time in their college careers and two had obtained modest scholarships: one, to cover the cost of books (from a church); the other, from the East Pakistan government (now Bangladesh).

Given the fact that San Francisco serves students who come primarily from working and lower middle class homes, it is not surprising that almost all of them (with two exceptions) had worked or were working at the time they entered the Project. This paid employment ranged from housework to being a police force officer, but for the most part consisted of clerical work in many settings (business firms, social security offices, hospitals) as secretaries, receptionists, typists, and filing clerks. There were also quite a number who had been or were salesgirls, bookkeepers, and multilith, key punch, credit and telephone operators. Other occupations included assembly line worker in a bakery, lifeguard, snack bar worker, laboratory assistant, and copy editor. As for social work experience, 22 of the students had done volunteer work in a number of different agencies, some quite steadily, others intermittently. Most had less than six months of such experience, a few had donated up to a year of service. In contrast to this wide-ranging volunteer exposure, paid experience either in social work or in an allied discipline was reported by seven students only. Four students had taught in public schools, two as teachers and two as teacher's aides (one home economics teacher, the oldest student in the Project, had taught for fifteen years; the other three, had had only one year of experience); two students had been employed by municipal recreation departments as playground leaders and camp helpers, each working for about a year; only one student was on leave from a social work job when she entered the Project--she had been employed as a caseworker in a county public welfare department for somewhat more than two years.

The small number of students in the Project precludes comparisons between this group and San Francisco's total upper division population during the 1970-72 academic years. They were quite similar in age and in their grade point averages to the total group of seniors majoring in social work. Their distribution in relation to sex was obviously skewed in being preponderantly female--not true to the same extent of all seniors. As for the ethnic factor, because of special efforts, the Project attracted a higher proportion of non-white students, sixteen of thirty, than did the social work major as a whole.

MOTIVATIONS OF PROJECT STUDENTS

It is not easy to classify these students' motivations for entering the social work major because they encompass a variety of feelings and aspirations which in many instances overlap. The discussion that follows separates the thirty students into groups in relation to what appeared to be the major motivation for each student.

The first group includes four students who have had business careers, but had found them spiritually unrewarding, even when accompanied by volunteer activities of a social work nature. Three were older women, 36 to 40 years of age, and one was 26. Three turned out to be among the best performers in the Project. One example of the stated motivations from this group follows.

> *I have spent a large part of my adult life working in the business world which has been rewarding to me from an economic standpoint, only. I have found the work itself, meaningless and unsatisfying. For this reason, I have been attempting through education to qualify myself for a career which would enable me to be involved in human relationships. I feel that it is of primary importance to my own growth, development, and potential to concern myself with those aspects which contribute to increasing harmony, well being, and opportunity for others....*

Chart 5–2

MOTIVATIONS of PROJECT STUDENTS for ENTERING SOCIAL WORK MAJOR

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- OTHER CAREERS FOUND SPIRITUALLY UNREWARDING BECAUSE THEY DO NOT PROVIDE OUTLET FOR HUMANITARIAN SERVICE
- URGE TO HELP OTHERS ESCAPE POVERTY AND DEPRIVATION THEY HAD EXPERIENCED OR OBSERVED
- SOCIAL WORK RELATED TO ALLIED CAREER GOALS

> *The area of child development and welfare has a particular interest for me. To aid in developing environments for children which are healthful and nourishing in every way is essential for a variety of obvious reasons. I would like to be involved in contributing to this work.*

The second group, seven students, was made up of those who had themselves experienced poverty and deprivation and were motivated primarily by an urge to help others to escape social injustice. These students ranged in age from 21 to 41, and their performance in the Project likewise covered a wide range--from excellent to barely satisfactory. One example of stated motivation from this group follows.

> *I suppose my interest in social work started to develop at the time my family and I moved to Hunter's Point Housing Project. I don't think anyone could live in that environment and not be permanently affected one way or the other. I saw the poverty, the dirt, the crime and decided that no child should be brought up like that.*

> *My main concern centers around children. A child, in his formative stage, may be permanently damaged or permanently helped by his influential environment. Therefore, this is where, I feel, 'help' should start.*
>
> *I know what it is to be scared of the darkness, not to know what tomorrow may bring. Even if a child has a family, he still needs a 'friend' at this difficult stage. If I could be just one child's 'friend', my life as a social worker will be fulfilled. ...I want all children to have at least a chance for good upbringing.*

The third group, with eight students, is differentiated by the fact that they themselves did not experience deprivation and discrimination, but by observing the sufferings of others, became emotionally and intellectually convinced that they must help these others. These students ranged in age from 21 to 50. Their performance in the Project also ranged from outstanding to barely passing. One example of the motivations from this group follows.

> *My interest in social work began at least ten years ago when my oldest sister became a social worker in the year 1960. I remember how concerned she was with the problems people of 'color' were going through and how she as a social work student would some day deal with these problems, how with her professional background of study she could somehow change the social plight many people of 'color' were experiencing.*
>
> *Right from the time of listening to my sister talk to her friends and my family, I made up my mind to become a social worker. I too was aware long ago that black people were the most controversial element in the realm of dependency, and I knew that most social workers were white and could not really deal with the problems and needs of black people because of the cultural and social differences between these two races. I knew that as time passed, many blacks able to or offered the opportunity to attend college would also realize this fact, and would begin to move in the direction of the social work school. Knowing this, I intended to be there with them to give black people living on welfare a chance to really identify and move to change their plight with the help of honest, dedicated black social workers willing to confer about and to help with whatever needs and problems they were experiencing.*
>
> *My interest in social work developed because I care and want to do something that can go beyond sympathizing and paying taxes for the support of welfare recipients. I am black and I love my people and want to do anything I can to see them relieved of a lot of problems and needs that can be dealt with through social work.*

The fourth group, consisting of four students, came to social work because this discipline seemed to them to be fairly closely related to what they wanted to do upon graduation, such as working with deaf children, or with juvenile delinquents while in the police force, or teaching mentally retarded youngsters, or counseling in college. These were 'older' students: three were between 31 and 46, while one was 24 years old. Their performance was average to barely satisfactory. One example of this group's stated motivations follows.

> *I plan to either teach or do some type of work which would involve exceptional children, particularly deaf children. My sister and brother are deaf. Since I was a child, I have noticed people's reaction to someone who is different. This reaction is a result of their lack of knowledge. I feel that my experience could help towards eliminating this misunderstanding. I wanted to major in Special Education but because I am an undergraduate, I could only take it as my minor.*

The fifth group, with seven students, was composed of people who chose social work either because they saw themselves as having considerable potential in transforming their humanitarian urgings into service, or because they discovered social work's professional career possibilities, or because their feelings and thoughts, generally in sympathy with the underdog, seemed to point to social work as a desirable outlet. None of these students were outstanding in their performance in the Project, and some performed at a fairly low level. Their ages ranged from 21 to 41. One example of motivations from this group follows.

> *My interest in social service developed as a result of three things. The first was taking an introspective view of myself. This was an honest attempt to see, among other things, my weaknesses and strengths, my potentials, how I relate to other people and how they relate to me, and how I think that the experiences of my background and childhood have an effect on these relationships. The second was a process of elimination. For several reasons I eliminated teaching, nursing, and physical therapy and decided that social work would allow me to realize the third reason, which is a sincere desire to help those who are in need of help and services.*

TEACHING EXPERIENCED BY STUDENTS IN THE PROJECT

Three aspects of teaching are particularly important for understanding student performance in relation to knowledge, attitudes and skills--to be discussed in the next two chapters.

1. The first is the team concept. The position of the Project staff was that the team approach to service delivery--that is, a team including staff with varying levels of education and different kinds of experience--holds more promise for quality social services for more clients than does the current hierarchical organization of agency services. For the Project staff, a team should be designed and used for a more effective way of carrying out the agency's goals and purposes--whatever other side benefits may accrue. We

believe that those who earn a baccalaureate degree in an approved undergraduate social work curriculum have unique competencies and can make distinct contributions to social welfare undertakings, especially when practicing in teams. From the outset, therefore, we were committed to incorporating into the education and training that took place in the Project as much as was feasible and possible of the kind of teaching that would prepare students to become effective performers in social service teams concerned with families and children.

It follows from the above that we questioned the utility of traditional supervision which takes the form of a "helping relationship" as the only form of teaching that would develop the student's abilities toward becoming an effective social worker. We also saw the utility of a supervisor who fulfilled the roles of leader, teacher, consultant; and of small groups whose members related to the teacher and to each other in a collegial rather than a hierarchical way, and were willing to help each other in field work situations of stress and strain. Hopefully, this would bring about a greater responsibility on the part of each student for his own educational and professional development.

In the seminar taught by the Project director and in the groups taught by Project supervisors, the effort was made to have all participants interact with each other as persons rather than as occupants of status positions: we strove to present the instructor and the supervisors/teachers as persons with greater experience and with more complex responsibilities, rather than as persons in authority. We wished to build upon the strengths of each student and, whenever possible, to compensate for his weaknesses by using others in the team to help him perform more adequately. We took the position that the same social worker should not be expected to be all things to all people.

2. The second is the seminar that takes place concurrently with field instruction. It was introduced by a discussion of the Project: its history and development; its objectives and their significance in relation to child welfare services, to the newly announced guidelines concerning the baccalaureate degree in social work, and to some of the major concerns about the current structure and organization of social service delivery in public welfare. Representatives of the two public agencies that cooperated with the Project--San Mateo Probation and DSS--and other community resource personnel met with the students for purposes of orientation.

Thereafter, the seminar process focused on the utilization of case presentations, by the students, for the purpose of clarifying and broadening the students' experiences and readings about the field of child welfare, and for developing the students' diagnostic and intervention skills relative to this field of practice. These presentations were based on weekly reports written by the students. (These reports were also read and discussed in individual conferences by the Project staff). While flexibility in writing reports was permitted--in order to allow for individualizing clients and students--students were encouraged to use an outline in order to assure inclusion of essential data.* In addition, written assignments were required at the end of each semester. In these assignments students were directed to develop appraisal forms pertaining to the case situations encountered in the field work placement. At the end of the field work year, each student was required to prepare a diagnostic summary of the cases which he had carried.

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* Students who wished to do so were encouraged and helped to prepare reports on selected topics. Four students chose to discuss adoption and racism in child welfare services.

The seminar instructor adopted the primary role of providing a broadening theoretical perspective pertinent to social work practice in the field of child welfare, as well as relating to the practical, function-connected problems that the students were experiencing in their field placements. The teaching-learning process, and the instructor's inputs, are reflected by the fact that the focal objective for the seminar was identified as that of developing the students' problem assessment skills, and preparing them for direct practice functions in the child welfare field.

The field placements' inputs were the crucial substantive and structural axes for the seminar. The instructor viewed the strength of the seminar as resting upon its integrated structure. The seminar's focus, content and interactions all were enhanced by the students' common field work experiences. The instructor used his involvement in the child welfare agencies, and his knowledge of these agencies' supervisory and experiential offerings for facilitating the solicitation, identification and resolution of field placement-related, practice problems and needs. In a sense, agency operations, field placement supervision, access to agency resources and seminar instruction all were "housed under one roof", and integrated around the commonality of needs and experiences derived from the students' functionings in the field of child welfare. This meant, among other things, that the seminar instructor had to know what was really going on in the agencies, to be of help to his students.

The problem of over-integration was recognized by the instructor in the case of four students whose interest in and commitment to practicing in the field of child welfare was minimal. Some of these students were not interested in social work as a profession, but had become social work majors because every student at San Francisco must declare a major and because social work seemed to come closest to what they were interested in. Others wished to become professional social workers, but in fields other than child welfare. With these students, the instructor utilized individualized teaching-learning structures and processes in such a way as to help them adapt the knowledge and skills requisite for practicing in child welfare to fields of practice, social work and others, in which they were interested.

While both students and instructor found that adaptation in this context did not detract from the value and impact of the seminar for these four students, the instructor believed that the problem of including students who did not intend to make social work their professsion, as well as the problem of over-integration, can perhaps be handled by a better screening-matching procedure.

In conducting the seminar, the instructor encouraged a critical approach, couched in constructive terms. It was expected that a student who criticized or disagreed would not only present reasons for his position, but also make suggestions for a different approach, decision, or plan in regard to the specific situation which was being discussed. Important in this connection was each student's ability to respond to questions and criticism by other students and by the instructor, in a rational, calm, and coherent manner, and to answer directly and clearly. In this way, it was possible to incorporate

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an important part of the team concept--joint assessment and decision-making--into seminar proceedings.

3. The third is teaching by Project supervisors. As might have been expected, this kind of teaching (more than seminar instruction) had to respond not only to the demands of the Project, but also to the operating policies and procedures of the two cooperating agencies in which the Project students were placed.

The Project supervisor taught students both through individual conferences and team meetings. Students maintained a log of their activities at their agency and submitted weekly process reports to the Project. Thus, when students were absent, appropriate case action could be taken by the supervisor. One supervisor regularly attended bi-monthly staff meetings of Watoto and DSS. This continuing contact with agency developments and staff made it possible to call upon agency supervisors and workers on an informal basis, and often on short notice, for case conferences with Project supervisors and students.

During the first year of the Project, court dependent cases were carried jointly by Project students and agency caseworkers at both Watoto and the DSS. In September 1971, in line with policy decisions made earlier, the Probation Department began to transfer its dependency cases to the DSS, starting with the Watoto cases and including those carried by the Project students. Prior to this transfer, at Watoto, students had been given complete responsibility for case management, the probation officer concentrating on court work. After the transfer, the DSS administrative staff questioned the continuation of undergraduate student workers on complicated child welfare cases. They stressed that the DSS Dependency Unit and its program were new to the agency, that supervisors and workers, with one exception, were new to the Unit's program. All staff in the Unit had MSWs but were unfamiliar with the cases, court procedure and the team approach. It was further emphasized that DSS was only in the early stages of absorbing the transfer of the Probation Department's total dependency load. Relationships between the two departments and the court were still unclear. Due to differences in policies, DSS could not provide supplements to inadequate grants--a source of dissatisfaction to foster parents who had grown accustomed to Probation Department supplements. They were also unclear about how to relate to DSS rather than to the Probation Department in regard to other matters.

Agreement was finally reached with DSS that called for our students and DSS workers to have joint responsibility for case management. Nevertheless, some of the DSS workers continued to resist undergraduate "social workers," reflecting the attitudes of their administration. DSS workers were all white, while the transferred cases and students were all black. As DSS workers adjusted to their cases and to the Project students (white students were added), some came to rely on the students and released them to provide independent service. Others held a tight rein and only permitted client contact when they themselves could be available. In contrast, these problems were not encountered in the voluntary placement cases carried by Project students; in these, our students carried full responsibility for the management of the case and for all activities undertaken in the case.

As noted above, students were taught by the Project supervisors both on an individual basis and as members of a team. Individual teaching was geared to the specific needs of the student and the unique demands of each case. Some students met with their supervisor/teacher on a weekly basis, other bi-weekly, and still others whenever required by case developments. The current status of each case as related to immediate and long-term goals was the basis of teaching and learning in this context. In addition, students often discussed not only their client's problems and circumstances but also their own academic work, career plans, and views of the agencies in which they were placed, as well as of the whole social work "scene."

Team teaching was carried out in meetings, every two weeks and on occasion once a month (often in the home of the supervisor/teacher), with groups of six students. Initially, the group familiarized itself with each other's cases. Hence, when a student felt the need to secure help from informed peers (in addition to that available in the seminar), such help was offered to him. Often, even when a student did not think that he needed a team consideration of the circumstances of his client, another student did think so and the case was then discussed by the group. Individual students' perspectives of child welfare were broadened by this indirect contact with the clients serviced by his peers. In addition to detailed case discussions, the group dealt with social issues, academic problems and expectations they had of themselves as social workers. They gently, yet perceptively, helped each other recognize their individual strengths and shortcomings when dealing with people. The students seemed reassured to share similar difficulties and were supportive toward one another. It should be noted that the impact of team teaching was enhanced by the fact that students, rather than the supervisor/teacher, were responsible for the content of each discussion. The supervisor/teacher saw her role as an advisor, and as a catalyst for open discussion, as well as leader if the occasion seemed to indicate this role.

Stressed especially in individual and group teaching was the development of the student's ability to establish and maintain a relationship of mutual trust with his client, as well as the ability to participate with peers and teachers--whether one like them or not--in identifying the nature of the problems experienced by the client and in establishing the appropriate method and plan for intervention and service. Much attention also was devoted to enhancing the student's ability to seek needed information, acquire knowledge, and use the expertise of other disciplines objectively, purposefully, and with economy of time and effort on the part of all involved. Vagueness, nebulousness, intellectual meandering unrelated to purpose, generalizations about "wanting to help people" were discouraged. Much time was spent on improving communication skills.

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Chapter 6

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENTS IN UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE SOCIAL WORK PROGRAMS: KNOWLEDGE, ATTITUDES AND SKILLS

This chapter explores the nature and degree of differences between graduates of undergraduate and graduate social work programs in the following areas: (a) social work knowledge; (b) social work practice skills; and (c) social attitudes--that is, acculturation to the professional social work sub-culture and its values. While the Project had no formal hypotheses, a logical assumption was that students with a higher level of social work education would be more knowledgeable and skillful than students with lesser education.

As explained earlier (Chapter 2), by utilizing the resources of this Project and of the work that was going on at the San Diego School of Social Work, a plan was implemented which allowed us to compare social work knowledge, social attitudes, and evaluation of practice skills of Project students with the following groups:

1. A group of graduates from the undergraduate-graduate continuum at San Diego. These are individuals with an undergraduate social work major plus a calendar year in a graduate school of social work culminating in an MSSW degree.*

2. A group of graduate social work students at San Diego in the regular two-year program who were about to receive their MSW degrees.

3. A group of graduate social work students at San Diego in the regular two-year program who were at the end of their second or beginning of their third semester of graduate work.

4. A group of seniors majoring in social welfare at San Diego.

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* A different title for the one year graduate degree was necessary for administrative reasons.

STUDY PARTICIPANTS

A total of 128 students were included in the research procedure. They were distributed among the following five groups: (1) MSSW continuum graduates; (2) second and third semester MSW students; (3) MSW students prior to graduation; (4) undergraduate seniors in social welfare, San Diego; and (5) undergraduate seniors in social welfare, San Francisco (Project students).

TABLE 16. STUDY PARTICIPANTS BY TYPE OF GROUP

Type of Group	Number	How Selected
Group I - MSSW continuum program	19	All program participants
Group II - MSW 2nd and 3rd semester	27	Random sampling and replacement
Group III - MSW final semester	19	Random sampling and replacement
Group IV - Seniors, San Diego	33	Total population less absentees
Group V - Seniors, San Francisco	30	All students in Project
Total	128	

TEST INSTRUMENTS AND DATA ANALYSIS

The test instruments, it will be recalled (Chapter 2), included: (1) the Sixty Item National Merit Examination--Cooperative Examination Project, (2) the Meyer Social Attitudes Questionnaire, (3) the Evaluation of Professional Performance, and (4) a Background Information Form. All five student groups completed items (1), (2), and (4). The Evaluation of Professional Performance was filled out for all groups except San Diego seniors where time pressures prevented field instructors from completing the forms.

Testing was begun in Spring, 1970, on the San Diego campus, continued in Spring, 1971, and was concluded for all San Diego groups in Fall, 1971. Administration of research instruments to all Project students was in early Spring of 1972.

While data was secured from all MSSW graduates, the percentage of MSW graduates who completed the research instruments was about 20%, of 2nd and 3rd semester MSW students close to 30% of the total student group. Among undergraduates, the San Diego sample represented all seniors who were in attendance at school on the day that tests were administered. Almost 85% of the Project students completed the entire test procedure while partial information is available for the remaining 15%. The full test battery could not be administered to some Project students who had graduated the previous year and with whom contact could not be made. Where feasible, administration of instruments was to groups of students. In cases of individual students who could not attend group sessions, individual appointments were offered.

The Project staff prepared scoring and coding instructions for all test items. Data were transferred onto coding sheets and then punched on IBM cards. Two computer programs were used. One program provided frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations for all variables coded. Another statistical program was used to test for differences among the five groups studied.

While test data were on an ordinal scale, it was decided to use an analysis of variance program suitable for interval data to determine if there were significant differences among the groups studied. It was thought that the more powerful parametric tests would be most likely to identify significant differences among groups, if any existed. Where two groups were compared, z-tests or t-tests were used, depending on the size of the samples which were compared. The .05 level was used to reject the Null hypothesis.

DESCRIPTION OF STUDY GROUPS

The five study groups included nineteen MSSWs, identified as Group I, twenty-seven 2nd and 3rd semester MSW students, referred to as Group II, nineteen graduating MSWs, Group III, thirty-three graduating seniors from San Diego, Group IV, and thirty graduating seniors from San Francisco (Project students) Group V.

Of the thirty San Francisco seniors, twenty-five completed all test instruments given to that group while five filled out the background questionnaire and their field instructors completed the field evaluation scale. These five had graduated the previous year, and contact could not be made with them when testing was done.

Table 17 describes the composition of study groups by sex.

TABLE 17. STUDY GROUPS BY SEX

Study Group	Male Number	Male %	Female Number	Female %
Group I - Graduating MSSWs	6	31.58	13	68.42
Group II - 2nd and 3rd semester MSWs	6	22.22	21	77.78
Group III - Graduating MSWs	6	31.58	13	68.42
Group IV - Seniors, San Diego	14	42.42	19	57.58
Group V - Seniors, San Francisco	2	6.67	28	93.33

Men constituted less than 30% of respondents in the graduate program. Since the proportion of men in this program was lower than that of women, only a slight disparity exists between the percentage of men expected to fall in the study sample and the percentage who particpated in the study. The male-female ratio among San Diego seniors accuately reflected the sex composition of students in the major.

There was little difference in the age of the five study groups. Seniors at San Diego were, on the average, the oldest group with a mean age of about 30 years, followed by graduating MSWs, seniors at San Francisco, MSSWs and 2nd and 3rd semester MSW students. The spread in age was slight since the mean of the youngest group was approximately 27 years, only 3 years lower than that of the oldest group.

TABLE 18. STUDY GROUPS BY MARITAL STATUS

Study Group	Single	Married	Divorced	Separated	Widowed
Group I - MSSWs	9	9	1		
Group II - 2nd and 3rd semester MSWs	10	11	2	2	2
Group III - Graduating MSWs	7	11	1		
Group IV - Seniors, San Diego	13	16	1	1	2
Group V - Seniors, San Francisco	19	9	2		

In regard to marital status, it will be noted that among San Francisco seniors less than half were or had been married; in contrast, more than half of the students in the other four groups were or had been married. The fact that overall 70 of the 128 students were or had been married, almost 55%, is not surprising in view of their age distribution. Of these 70, ten were divorced and separated, almost 15%. This is also understandable in view of the generally high divorce rates in California.

Of forty-six students in the MSW program (Groups II and III), eight had a social work major, seventeen majored in sociology, ten in psychology, three in the social sciences, four in humanities or theology, and two in art. Thus, the bulk of students in Groups II and III had reasonably appropriate educational preparation for graduate study in social work.

Information was also obtained about grade point average--see Table 19. In this connection it should be noted that a college-wide survey done of grading practices in undergraduate departments at San Diego showed that the average grade given in social welfare was considerably higher than grades given in other undergraduate departments. Despite this finding, the grade point average of San Diego seniors was lowest of the five groups studied. For all groups the grade point average was below a B.

TABLE 19. STUDY GROUPS BY UNDERGRADUATE GRADE POINT AVERAGE

Study Group	Mean	Rank
Group I - MSSWs	2.96	1
Group II - 2nd and 3rd semester MSWs	2.84	3
Group III - Graduating MSWs	2.76	4
Group IV - Seniors, San Diego	2.69	5
Group V - Seniors, San Francisco	2.90	2

The results indicate that while San Diego seniors with a social welfare major presumably received good grades in their major, their performance in other subjects must have been weaker to account for their low overall grade point average. Students for the MSSW continuum project were selected primarily from this pool of seniors. Applying the selection criteria of the graduate program, the best students from this pool were admitted to the continuum program. We find that the continuum students had the highest overall grade point average. This can be attributed to the selection criteria employed. The grade point average of the San Francisco study sample ranked second--higher than the two groups in the regular MSW program.

As might be expected, students in the MSW program had considerably more prior social work experience than the other three groups. In this group of forty-six students, twenty-one had worked for up to one year, two for up to two years, and twenty-three for more than two years in social work or a related field. By comparison, thirteen of the nineteen MSSW students had no work experience, and of the remaining six, only one had worked in the field for over a year. The work experience of the two groups of seniors was largely restricted to the field placement to which they were assigned in their senior year.

While no systematic analysis was made, the socio-economic background of parents of women students in the MSW and MSSW program was considerably higher than that of the men. Many came from high-status business and professional families. Among seniors at San Francisco, where a large proportion of students came from non-white ethnic minorities, a majority of fathers were employed as skilled and unskilled workmen while the proportion of parents with professional backgrounds was considerably smaller. Parental occupations of seniors at San Diego showed a wide range of occupations, including service families, and an equal proportion of professionals and of skilled and semi-skilled workmen.

FINDINGS

Our study proposition predicted that individuals completing a graduate social work degree (MSW or MSSW) will exceed seniors in undergraduate social work programs in (a) knowledge, and (b) social work practice skills. The former were also expected to have social attitudes more closely in harmony with the liberal-humanistic value system of social work.

Before a direct test of the proposition could be undertaken, the two groups of seniors from San Diego and San Francisco, respectively, were analyzed to see if they differed substantially from each other in knowledge, attitudes, and practice skills.

SAN DIEGO AND SAN FRANCISCO SENIORS COMPARED

Social Work Knowledge

Both groups took the Cooperative Examination Project. A comparison of scores on the Cooperative Examination Project showed a mean score of 41.80 for the San Francisco seniors and a mean score of 43.00 for the San Diego seniors. The difference between the two groups was not statistically significant ($z = .83$, $p = \text{N.S.}$). It can be seen that the two means were quite close in value.

Social Attitudes

Table 20 provides means and standard deviations for the ten dimensions of the Meyer Social Attitude Questionnaire which was completed by both groups of seniors. Statistically significant differences were determined by use of a t-test.

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As Table 20 shows, the two groups of seniors differed significantly on only two of the ten dimensions of this test. They were Items 3 and 6, personal goals vs. maintenance of group, and secularism vs. religiosity. Since this test refers to value orientations which derive from childhood socialization experiences, the fact that the majority of San Francisco seniors come from minority ethnic groups where religion is positively regarded may be a factor in their more positive rating of religiosity. However, the overall analysis demonstrates remarkable homogeneity between the two groups on value orientations. Inferentially, this suggests either that the social work value system is pervasive with schools of social work or that students with identifiable value orientations seek to obtain social work education.

TABLE 20. MEYER SOCIAL ATTITUDES QUESTIONNAIRE: SAN DIEGO AND SAN FRANCISCO GRADUATING SENIORS COMPARED

	Group IV(N=33)		Group V(N=25)			
	Graduating seniors, San Diego		Graduating seniors, San Francisco			
Dimension	Mean	S.D.*	Mean	S.D.*	t	Probability
1. Public aid vs. private effort	14.00	2.14	13.52	1.81	.90	N.S.
2. Personal freedom vs. societal controls	12.85	1.97	12.20	2.43	1.11	N.S.
3. Personal goals vs. maintenance of group	12.06	1.82	11.08	2.14	1.85	.05
4. Social causation vs. individual autonomy	12.70	1.74	12.32	2.19	.72	N.S.
5. Pluralism vs. homogeneity	13.52	2.05	13.12	2.13	.71	N.S.
6. Secularism vs. religiosity	14.15	1.70	13.12	1.64	2.31	.05
7. Self-determinism vs. fatalism	12.33	1.16	11.96	1.21	1.19	N.S.
8. Positive satisfaction vs. struggle-denial	12.91	2.18	12.00	2.04	1.61	N.S.
9. Social protection vs. social retribution	12.82	2.46	12.72	2.35	0.05	N.S.
10. Innovation-change vs. tradition	12.54	1.68	12.04	1.74	1.11	N.S.**

*S.D. = Standard Deviation. **N.S. = No significance.

No comparison could be made between the two groups of seniors on social work practice skills. Due to administrative problems, the evaluation of field performance for seniors was not completed by faculty members at San Diego. However, on the Cooperative Examination Project and on the Meyer Social Attitude Questionnaire the two groups of seniors showed remarkable similarity.

THE FIVE GROUPS COMPARED

In the following section, data are presented which compare the five study groups relative to social work knowledge, attitudes, and skills.

Social Work Knowledge

Mean scores and standard deviations for the five study groups are presented in Table 21.

TABLE 21. SCORES AND TEST RESULTS ON THE COOPERATIVE EXAMINATION PROJECT: FIVE STUDY GROUPS COMPARED

Study Group	Cooperative Examination Project	
	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group I - MSSWs - 1971	48.05	(3.41)
Group II - MSWs - 2nd and 3rd semester	48.52	(4.98)
Group III - Graduating MSWs - 1971	48.58	(4.76)
Group IV - San Diego graduating seniors-1971	43.00	(5.99)
Group V - San Francisco graduating seniors - 1971/2	41.80	(4.96)

Analysis of test data by means of an analysis of variance program showed that the three groups of graduate students did not differ significantly from each other on the knowledge test administered (184). It was previously shown that the two groups of seniors did not differ on the same knowledge test.

When comparing the mean scores of both groups of seniors with those of the graduate students on the Cooperative Examination Project, statistically significant differences emerged.

San Francisco seniors and graduating MSWs: $z = 4.48$, $p = 0.0003$
San Diego seniors and graduating MSWs: $z = 3.80$, $p = 0.0007$

Similarly, the two groups of seniors scored significantly lower on social work knowledge than the two other graduate groups. The findings confirm the study proposition with respect to social work knowledge.

Social Attitudes

Table 22 presents data on the Meyer social attitude scale which was completed by all five study groups.

Using an analysis of variance program which compared the two MSW groups with seniors from San Francisco, it was found that there were no significant differences on any of the ten dimensions of the test. Similarly, San Diego seniors did not differ significantly from the graduate students. This finding questions the notion that length of exposure to social work education firms up adherence to the professional value system. This effect could not be substantiated with our data. The hypothesis was not upheld in this area.

TABLE 22. SOCIAL ATTITUDES QUESTIONNAIRE (MEYER): FIVE STUDY GROUPS COMPARED

	Group I (N=19)		Group II (N=27)		Group III (N=19)		Group IV (N=33)		Group V (N=25)	
	(MSSW - 1971)		(MSW-2nd&3rd Semester)		(Graduating MSWs)		(Graduating seniors, San Diego)		(Graduating seniors, San Francisco)	
	Mean	S.D.*	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1. Public aid vs. private effort	13.89	1.66	14.33	2.08	15.00	1.00	14.00	2.14	13.52	1.81
2. Personal freedom vs. societal controls	11.53	3.08	11.93	2.13	12.11	2.83	12.85	1.97	12.20	2.43
3. Personal goals vs maintenance of group	12.42	1.17	11.74	1.48	11.68	1.77	12.06	1.82	11.08	2.14
4. Social causation vs. individual autonomy	12.00	2.21	13.07	1.92	13.32	1.64	12.70	1.74	12.32	2.19
5. Pluralism vs. homogeneity	13.42	1.77	14.19	1.44	14.16	1.64	13.52	2.05	13.12	2.13
6. Secularism vs. religiosity	13.79	2.23	14.22	1.76	13.74	1.79	14.15	1.70	13.12	1.64
7. Self-determinism vs. fatalism	12.37	0.96	12.30	1.30	12.47	1.17	12.33	1.16	11.96	1.21
8. Positive satisfaction vs. struggle-denial	12.32	2.03	13.00	1.92	12.53	2.67	12.91	2.18	12.00	2.04
9. Social protection vs. social retribution	11.47	2.48	13.22	2.12	12.89	1.91	12.82	2.46	12.72	2.35
10. Innovation-change vs. traditionalism	11.47	1.93	12.93	1.84	12.11	1.45	12.54	1.68	12.04	1.74

*S.D. = Standard Deviation.

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TABLE 23. EVALUATION OF PROFESSIONAL PERFORMANCE: FOUR STUDY GROUPS COMPARED

	Group I (N=19)		Group II (N=27)		Group III (N=19)		Group V (N=30)	
	(MSSWs - 1971)		(MSW-2nd&3rd Semester)		(Graduating MSWs)		(Graduating seniors, San Francisco)	
	Mean+	S.D.	Mean+	S.D.	Mean+	S.D.	Mean+	S.D.
A. Professional Qualities and Aptitudes								
1. Committed to human service	1.26	0.56	1.19	0.40	1.17	0.38	1.56	0.50*
2. Aware of social environment	1.53	0.51	1.38	0.50	1.22	0.43	1.94	0.62*
3. Recognizes uniqueness, including own	1.47	0.51	1.23	0.43	1.17	0.38	1.88	0.55*
4. Aware of own behavior patterns	1.63	0.60	1.65	0.62	1.44	0.51	1.91	0.73
B. Social Work Practice								
1. Aware of self and self-style	1.74	0.65	1.58	0.58	1.44	0.51	1.97	0.54*
2. Aware of responses of others	1.74	0.65	1.54	0.58	1.39	0.50	1.74	0.62*
3. Perceives person-problem situation	1.32	0.48	1.35	0.49	1.17	0.38	1.97	0.54*
4. Deals with past and future factors	1.47	0.51	1.23	0.43	1.17	0.38	2.00	0.44*
5. Engages clients	1.26	0.45	1.50	0.51	1.11	0.32	1.78	0.42*
6. Is able to modify assessment and goals	1.63	0.50	1.46	0.51	1.17	0.38	1.94	0.62*
7. Knows and uses resources	1.79	0.63	1.27	0.45	1.33	0.49	1.75	0.57*
8. Knows and uses agency setting	1.68	0.75	1.35	0.56	1.39	0.50	1.94	0.67*
9. Conducts/participates in conferences	1.61	0.61	1.62	0.59	1.35	0.49	1.81	0.64
10. Critically analyzes service system	1.89	0.68	1.46	0.51	1.33	0.49	2.13	0.61
11. Critically analyzes dysfunctional aspects	1.68	0.67	1.46	0.51	1.28	0.46	2.13	0.61
12. Able to cope with conflicts	1.89	0.82	1.69	0.55	1.72	0.57	1.84	0.57
13. Able to communicate with clients	1.21	0.42	1.35	0.49	1.22	0.43	1.59	0.50*
14. Able to communicate with colleagues	1.53	0.61	1.27	0.45	1.44	0.51	1.75	0.51*
15. Able to communicate with superiors	1.53	0.62	1.42	0.58	1.44	0.62	1.78	0.61*
C. Commitment to Social Work Education								
1. Uses opportunities for learning	1.58	0.77	1.27	0.45	1.17	0.38	1.69	0.64*
2. Builds on learning experiences	1.42	0.61	1.31	0.47	1.28	0.46	1.81	0.64*
3. Broadens, deepens professional development	1.58	0.61	1.31	0.47	1.33	0.49	1.78	0.70*
4. Demonstrates concern for social work	1.84	0.60	1.46	0.51	1.44	0.62	2.00	0.67*
D. Work Management								
1. Manages work responsibilities	1.32	0.48	1.38	0.50	1.22	0.43	1.56	0.50
2. Handles agency procedures	1.74	0.73	1.54	0.58	1.28	0.46	1.72	0.46

+ The lower the score, the more positive the evaluation. The range of scores is from 1 to 4.

* Statistically significant difference; reject the Null hypothesis.

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Social Work Practice Skills

For the comparison of practice skills between graduate and undergraduate students in social work, only the seniors from San Francisco could be used since performance evaluations for the San Diego seniors were not available.

To put the findings in perspective, inquiry was made about the respective grading patterns at the two different schools of social work to which these data apply. It was mentioned previously that undergraduate classroom grades in social work at San Diego were higher on average than grades given in other undergraduate departments in the college. It was also learned that there was substantial differences in grading of field performance between the Project (undergraduate) and the graduate program at San Diego.

A study of field grades of San Diego graduate students (MSW and MSSW) indicated that 76% received an A grade, 22% a B grade, and 1% a C grade in Fall, 1971. These grades included first semester field work grades for first-year students in their first semester in the school. Over 70% of these students received an A. By comparison, an analysis of field grades for the 30 San Francisco seniors over the full year of their field placement in a professional child welfare setting showed that the distribution of grades was 43.3% A, 48.4% B, and 8.3% C. One may conclude that there are differences in grading practices.

Table 23 presents mean scores on various aspects of social work practice for three groups of graduate students and the seniors from San Francisco.

The findings indicate that graduate students were rated significantly higher on 18 out of the 25 items on the Evaluation of Professional Performance form. The findings are not surprising. Field instruction constitutes the largest single segment of graduate social work education while the amount of time devoted to field instruction in undergraduate programs is much more limited. Thus, superior performance on the part of graduate students is to be expected.

However, the findings are complicated somewhat by the unusually liberal grading pattern documented for graduate students at San Diego. This pattern obviously affects the ratings on the Evaluation of Professional Performance since the letter grade for field instruction rests on a review of items in this scale.

If we disregard the variance in field grading patterns between the undergraduate Project students in San Francisco and the graduate students in San Diego, the findings indicate that the latter were considered to have greater proficiency in most areas of social work practice skills than their undergraduate counterparts. Consequently, this part of the study proposition was upheld.

In summary, graduate students were found to score significantly higher than undergraduate seniors on the knowledge test. They also were rated superior to graduating seniors in performance of social work tasks. However, no differences in social attitudes were found among the groups surveyed. This would indicate a relatively uniform value set among students enrolled at different levels of social work education.

Chapter 7

EVALUATION OF SERVICES PROVIDED BY PROJECT STUDENTS AND ASSESSMENT OF STUDENT READINESS TO ENTER PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE

In this chapter we attempt to evaluate the quality of services provided by Project students through analysis of activities they performed--activities called for by processes important in child welfare services--and the level of skill achieved in carrying them out. In order to relate this evaluation to both the consumers and providers of service in our context, we include initially a summary of students' expectations about problems they would be dealing with when they entered the Project; a description of student learning experiences not connected with direct services; a statement concerning the service needs of Project children; and a portrayal, with case illustrations, of direct services rendered by Project students. This is followed by an assessment of student readiness to enter professional practice.

STUDENTS' EXPECTATIONS CONCERNING PROBLEMS CONNECTED WITH THE PROVISION OF SERVICES TO CHILDREN AND THEIR FAMILIES

Included in the questionnaire which each student filled out when he entered the Project was the following question: "As you begin work on this Project, what do you expect will be some of the major problems in working with natural parents, foster children, foster parents, and community?"

1. In regard to natural parents, all of the students had clear-cut views. Twenty-four of the thirty students visualized these parents as reluctant and feeling that they have been deprived of their parental rights when their children were placed in foster care. These attitudes, the students thought, were likely to be accompanied by concern for the child's well-being, resentment, guilt, refusal to face their own inadequacies, hostility toward worker and agency, feelings of failure and humiliation, uncertainty, confusion and ambivalence. Two students thought that some parents might be apathetic about the removal of the children, whereas two others believed that parents might "fight" removal. One student foresaw the possibility of parents projecting their "very strong mixed feelings" onto the child in the form of rejection of the child, and one student saw a problem in "helping parents to find a sound foundation to deal with the

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realities of their own situation."*

Elaborating on these views, two students felt that a major problem would be to remove parental "misunderstanding about foster homes," "to get parents to understand that they are not being punished when their children are taken away." One student noted: "also it will be hard to like parents if I feel they are deserting their children or mistreating them." The student who herself had been a foster child said: "Concern that child will not be well off in foster home (or in some cases, lack of concern or interest). Hostility toward those who are in charge of their children." Not a single student thought of foster care as an arrangement into which natural parents would enter voluntarily, without their child having to be "taken away" by the state.

2. In regard to foster children, all of the students expressed definite views as well. Seven saw the child as not wanting to part from his own parents, accompanied by inability to adjust to foster home life and fear of never returning to his own home. Sixteen students saw the major problem as one of adjustment in the foster home--viewing his curcumstances as rejection by natural parents; unfamiliar demands of his new environment; feeling helpless, insecure, confused, not "belonging"; trying to understand why he is under agency care, being ambivalent toward both natural and foster parents, loneliness, conflict, fear, anger; identity problems. Three students thought that major problems could develop around "making sure that in the foster home the child is accepted and loved for himself." Four others foresaw difficulties in working with the children themselves: "getting them to trust and accept me"; "helping them feel that they have not been abandoned by their parents"; "investigating creative choices for them"; "distrusting me as a Caucasian, if they are minority children." The former foster child among Project students wrote: "maladaptive behavior, problems in adjustment, determining what the needs are, need for acceptance, security, love."

3. In regard to foster parents, all thirty students likewise expressed definite opinions. Only four saw major problems as stemming from these parents' basic unsuitability for their roles (suggesting that the agency may have made a poor choice). Only two thought "the problem is in finding qualified adults and determining how effective they are as foster parents" (implying that if expertise is present, the right choices can be made). A majority of the students, sixteen, felt that foster parents were able to give the child what he needs, if they receive help from the worker in this difficult undertaking. Two students saw problems arising out of the child's wish to continue contact with natural parents and the latter's desire to visit, both of which, the students thought, should be encouraged by the agency. Three believed that foster parents "will become attached to the child and will resent giving him up when the time comes" or will seek to adopt the child. One student hypothesized that foster parents might become guilty "about accepting money for the child's care." And two foresaw problems in relation to their own ability to "gain true insight into the family's capacity to care for and to accept a foster child." The student who was a foster child wrote:

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* If our question in regard to natural parents had been couched in terms of "How do you think these parents felt on day of placement," the replies might not have been too different from those actually expressed by parents: sad, worried, nervous, empty, angry, bitter, thankful, relieved, guilty, ashamed, numb, paralyzed, in a descending order of frequency (77).

"adjustments in making room for the foster child, determine unmet needs, problems in acceptance into new family group, especially when there are other children in family."

4. In regard to the community, four students were unable to predict any problems. Three produced answers so vague as to be meaningless, e.g. "you never know what to expect out of the community." Thus, seven students of the thirty showed a lack of knowledge about problems generated by communities that have an impact on the provision of social services for children.

Eleven students appeared to take a positive view of the community's desire to mount and sustain adequate foster care programs, provided workers and agencies educated, interpreted and informed. In contrast, ten students assumed that the community would have a negative perception of foster care but did not indicate how this could be modified in a constructive direction. Negativism, they suggested, might stem from community's fear of foster children in its midst because of the possibility of mental illness or criminality in their backgrounds; rejection of or apathy in regard to minority or handicapped youngsters; complaints about costs; concern about troublesome youngsters coming into their neighborhoods and "for their kids being contaminated by foster kids"; and "Predjudices and ignorance"; as well as "unnecessary signs of pity, contempt or unacceptance." The student who had been a foster child emphasized "problems of adjustment of foster children in the schools, and community concern about proper use of tax dollars for children's care."

It appears from the above the students' expectations concerning problems they might encounter were more vague in regard to the community than with reference to other elements in the foster care process; and that, with some exceptions, their ideas about problems in working with children and parents reflected quite adequately what does in fact often occur in "real life." This suggests that from the point of view of abstract cognitive and attitudinal positions, these students were endowed with a significant potential for the development of practice skills.

STUDENT LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Learning experiences of students in the Project consisted of those connected with the provision of direct services, and those not so connected but related to foster care in other ways. The latter are discussed first.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES OTHER THAN THOSE CONNECTED WITH DIRECT SERVICE

Because of our students' relatively weaker orientation to the community as a major factor in determining policy and allocation of resources of child welfare services, we utilized the delay in referrals to the Project for strengthening their understanding of this aspect of practice. After a short induction period, they were placed in fifteen San Mateo agencies (see Acknowledgements) where they remained for periods of one to two months. By giving students an opportunity to observe, participate and discuss, this experience provided an orientation to the scope and character of social services in this county--especially as they have been shaped by community attitudes and values which resulted in strengths or weaknesses, or both.

Attention was directed to funding sources, staffing, administrative structure, client needs (met and unmet), philosophy, functions, objectives, and relationships with other agencies. Our integrative backup seminar was used for further analysis of the knowledge and insights gained in this way.

Upon completing their assignment in community agencies, students began training for the survey of San Mateo children in foster care. The survey proved to be a valuable and an exciting learning experience for all of them. They became immersed in the reading of agency records, asked numerous questions, gained a broad vista of the poignant human problems that bring children into foster care, of the ways agencies operate, and of the kind of services they offer. Their understanding of the two agencies in which they subsequently carried on their direct service functions was immeasurably enriched. The enthusiasm and involvement of students were reflected in the fact that many volunteered extra time for the survey during the semester and the Christmas vacation.

These two types of learning experiences were available for seventeen of the thirty students--those who entered the Project during its first active year. For thirteen students who came in at the beginning of the Project's second active year, knowledge concerning San Mateo's social services network and its foster children was communicated in the seminar, by the instructor, and by representatives of agencies. The importance of this knowledge was stressed by relating it consistently to the material included by students in their case presentations in the seminar.

During the Project's first year, four white students were not assigned any children (and/or parents) for direct service. The reason for this was that, as explained earlier, the majority of our cases came from Watoto (rather than from DSS as originally planned) and one of this agency's requirements was that their children, all black, be served by black workers. Since DSS, which did not have this kind of staffing requirement, did not begin to refer cases to the Project until later, there were not enough children for all of the white students. To provide a different type of learning experience for these students that would nevertheless center on foster care, they were instructed in the following: analyzing a large volume of foster home recruitment materials and developing a recruitment guide; developing an up-to-date San Mateo resource file on currently operating public and voluntary social service and related community agencies; attending meetings of the local branch of the Foster Parents Association, DSS foster care placement staff conferences, and the meetings of the Project's Advisory Committee. These activities, following placement in certain San Mateo agencies and participation in the survey, did yield significant knowledge about and understanding of the foster care system.

One black student, in line with his own and Watoto's request, was assigned to intake where he worked in cooperation with probation officers during his entire field work year.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES DERIVED FROM DIRECT SERVICE

Sixteen students each carried one case and nine, two cases each. In regard to number of children served, the range was from one child to seven children. Students worked with relatively few natural parents: eight did not serve any at all (deceased, inaccessible); service by seventeen students ranged from work with one to three natural parents. As was to be expected, all students worked with foster parents, this involvement ranging from serving a foster mother only to working with five individual parents. In addition, three students worked in the foster home licensing division of DSS where they completed two licensing studies. The major considerations that brought about these variations revolved around the types of problems presented by the children and the student's ability to take on service responsibility. It was the position of the Project staff that each student should be helped to learn at his own pace, and to take on the kind and amount of responsibility he was capable of fulfilling. Hence, the variations cited were due to individualization of both student and client.

Students' service varied in length from six to nine months. Ten students served for six months; thirteen, for nine months; and two, for seven months. To provide continuity of service during the summer between the Project's first and second active years, three of the students were employed for three months to carry the entire caseload under the guidance of the director and supervisor. These students were selected in relation to the quality of their performance during their field work year.

SERVICE NEEDS OF PROJECT CHILDREN

The service needs of the 49 Project children ranged over a wide variety--from those who needed to have a determination made as to whether they were dependent children to those who needed medical and psychiatric evaluation and treatment. Often a child would present several needs. Many of the children had medical and educational problems; some needed recreational outlets, including summer camping; others needed nursery and day care services. Medical problems included speech impediments, hearing defects, severe dental impairments, possible brain damage, and many others.

In some instances, the child's best development in the foster home pointed to vocational training and employment for the natural mother in order to equip her to take him back. Quite a number of the children required intervention based on a psycho-social assessment of their strengths and weaknesses while in foster care. Among emotional problems experienced by these youngsters were confusion in regard to identity, stemming from child abuse and extreme parental neglect; fears and insecurities produced by a natural mother's death from an overdose of drugs, a natural mother's being in and out of jail because of drug abuse, robbery and prostitution, conflict between natural parents or between natural parent and grandparents over child, and natural mother's serious emotional maladjustment and mental inadequacy. Some children developed strong feelings of hostility and poor self images because of constant fights and frequent separations between their natural parents, physical abuse of the mother by the father, frequent moving from place to place, and sporadic employment on the part of the father. Some children were characterized by discipline problems, hyperactivitiy, and sexual acting out.

ACTIVITIES INVOLVED IN PROVISION OF DIRECT SERVICES BY PROJECT STUDENTS

As noted earlier (Chapter 2), at the end of the Project's two-year active period, the weekly written reports prepared by students were read by the supervisor and a research assistant. The purpose was to identify and classify student activities in relation to processes important in child welfare services, through adherence to the following outline:

Activities of Students in Relation to Processes Important in Child Welfare Services

A. Diagnosis (a process continuing throughout field instruction)

1. Assessment of natural parents, including

   a. their reaction to crisis or stress (that is, the situation that triggered decision to place child in foster care);
   b. their ego strengths (reality testing, adaptive behavior vs. compulsive repetition of harmful behavior, ability to learn from experience and to use help, etc.);
   c. their parenting capacities (ability to meet child's needs for affection, care, supervision, training);
   d. their ability to provide a stable environment.

2. Assessment of foster parents, including

   a. their ego strengths (as above);
   b. their parenting capacities (as above and in addition, letting child go if this is best for him);
   c. their attitudes toward people whose children come into foster care;
   d. their attitudes toward agency;
   e. their attitudes toward student-worker.

3. Assessment of child, including

   a. level of development (normal-pathological in certain areas);
   b. reactions to separation from natural parents;
   c. developmental needs.

4. Planning for short-range goals for child, as they relate to his developmental needs.

5. Planning for long-range goals for child, as they relate to his developmental needs.

B. Decision-Making (a process continuing throughout field instruction)

1. Remove or not to remove child from natural home.

2. Services that are essential to meet child's developmental needs.

3. Adequcy or inadequacy of available community resources to meet child's developmental needs.

4. Extent to which foster parents are able to use worker, agency and community resources to meet child's developmental needs.

5. Extent to which child is developing in line with planned short-range goals.

6. Extent to which long-range goals are constructive and desirable in relation to updated and reassessed knowledge and understanding gained while child is in foster care.

C. Intervention (a process continuing throughout field instruction)

1. Establishing a working relationship with clients.

2. Developing self awareness and objective empathy.

3. Making appropriate referrals.

4. Assisting clients to use community resources as needed (medical, psychiatric, educational, recreational, etc.)

D. Developing Knowledge of Agency and Community (a process continuing throughout field instruction), including

1. Observing and recording community problems, e.g., group tensions, housing conditions.

2. Observing and recording what occurs at community meetings dealing with social services and their delivery.

3. Observing and recording what occurs at agency staff and board meetings.

4. Visiting community services and agencies, interviewing their executives and/or workers to learn about program, philosophy and goals.

5. Discussing with Project staff and in the backup seminar the scope and quality of community resources and interagency cooperation toward achieving goals for clients, and suggesting the kinds of advocacy that should be undertaken.

6. Reading case records that illustrate services, discussing findings with Project staff and in the backup seminar, and suggesting the kinds of advocacy that are indicated.

During the first active year of the Project, student activities encompassed all those listed in the outline, in varying frequencies.

Combining the separate items under larger headings, we find that activities involved in assessing foster parents, in developing knowledge of agency and community, and in assessing the child were the most frequently recorded (173, 137, and 109 times, respectively). The least frequently recorded activities were planning for long-range and short-range goals, written about only nine and fifteen times, respectively. Between these two

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extremes were recordings concerning assessment of natural parents, decision-making, and intervention, in an ascending order (53, 58, and 61 recordings, respectively).

During the second active year of the Project, activities of the thirteen students providing service in that year did not encompass all those listed in the outline: not mentioned were "extent to which foster parents are able to use worker, etc." and "observing and recording community problems." Again, combining the separate items of remaining activities under larger headings for the second year, we find that activities involved in assessing foster and natural parents, and in developing knowledge of agency and community were the most frequently recorded (90, 62 and 62 times, respectively). Intervention activities were the next most frequently written about (52 times), followed by assessment of child (47 times). Planning for the child, short and long-range, remained the least frequently described activities (recorded nine and eleven times, respectively), and activities connected with the decision-making process were also recorded relatively rarely (26 times).

It appears that while, in both years, assessment of foster parents was the most frequently recorded, and planning for short and long-range goals was the least frequently written about, there was some shift among other activities. Its more significant aspects were that in the second year greater stress was placed on assessing natural parents and on intervention and appreciably less on assessing the child.

In interpreting the data on activities the following limitations should be kept in mind:

1. many activities were described by students verbally both to their supervisors and in the seminar, but were not recorded or documented in their written reports--hence, could not be included in the counts;

2. many students recorded in great length and detail but failed to interpret activities in relation to child's service needs--to apply analytic judgment--hence, much of what they did was not included in the counts;

3. in relation to "assessment of natural parents," all but two of the children (from one natural family) were already in foster homes when assigned for direct service to students, a situation that suggests that a certain amount of assessment of these natural parents had already taken place. In addition, eight students had no natural parents to work with;

4. because student perceptions of the community were found to be hazy, special efforts were made by the Project staff to utilize the delay in referrals and the discussions in the seminar to strengthen the development of knowledge of agency and community;

5. in respect to planning, decision-making and intervention, responsibility for these activities in cases carried jointly by students and DSS workers was often retained by the latter--despite the availability of careful guidance and counseling provided students individually and in a team relationship by the Project staff. Consequently, students' opportunities for engaging in these activities directly were minimal. Eleven of the Project's 22 cases, involving thirteen students, were carried jointly.

Given the limitations imposed by some of these factors, it is still valid to note the "strong" and "weak" areas of student activity, in quantitative terms. These areas emerge most clearly when activities for the two years are combined.

TABLE 24. DIRECT SERVICE ACTIVITIES PERFORMED BY PROJECT STUDENTS

Activities	Number of Times Recorded	% of Total Number
1. Assessment of foster parents	263	27.28
2. Developing knowledge of agency and community	199	20.64
3. Assessment of child	146	15.15
4. Assessment of natural parents	115	11.93
5. Intervention	113	11.72
6. Decision-making	84	8.71
7. Planning for short-range goals for child	24	2.49
8. Planning for long-range goals for child	20	2.07
Total	964	99.99

It seems clear from this distribution that decision-making, intervention, and planning are the weakest areas--at least quantitatively--in student activities. As is well known, these are the weakest areas in the provision of services in the child welfare field in general. It must be emphasized as well that at the end of their analysis of student activities, the supervisor and the research assistant jointly made the following important comment: "the major shortcoming in the students' written materials, a reflection on the educational system as a whole, is the inability on the part of most students to write. This is especially evident when it comes to expressing their thoughts in a clear, orderly manner and, in some instances, in expressing their thoughts at all, i.e., to write English." There can be no doubt that these handicaps in the area of communication skills seriously thwart and/or diminish students' ability to convey clearly what they do when attempting to provide direct services to children and their parents.

LEVEL OF SKILL ATTAINED IN DIRECT SERVICE PERFORMED BY PROJECT STUDENTS

As is well known,

> *There is no clear definition as yet as to the levels of practice skills which are expected of associate, baccalaureate, and master's degree social workers. What should a social worker with two or four or six years of higher education be prepared to do? And, as a corollary, what should be the content of the field instruction program which is designed to prepare him for these duties? The answers to these questions are still in the process of being defined (187:15).*

In what follows, we offer suggestions toward a definition by showing what social workers with four years of higher education can actually do--and what, by implication, they should do.

DIAGNOSTIC SUMMARIES

As already explained (Chapter 2), at the end of his field work year, each student prepared a diagnostic summary for each one of his cases. Students who provided direct service during the Project's first year were required to read and incorporate pertinent information already available in the agency's record into their own summaries. Five of the Project's 22 cases were completed during this first year; the remaining seventeen were carried over to the second year of the Project. Students who wrote diagnostic summaries at end of the second year were required to incorporate all of the preceding pertinent material into these final summaries. (Office copies of these summaries identified those parts which came from the summaries of the ten students who had given service during the Project's first year).

APPLICATION OF CRITERIA TO DETERMINE LEVEL OF SKILL

The five criteria applied (Chapter 2), answer the question "Is there evidence of skill in: (1) compassionate view of the problem, (2) understanding the purpose of visits or other contacts, (3) sensitivity to defensive reactions, (4) objectivity--empathy, and (5) helping ability." To indicate the degree of skill, the evaluator answered the above question by using four designations: "yes", "some", "little", "no". Only one case was rated "yes" on all five criteria; none was rated "no" on all five. Three cases received four "yes" valuations; none was given four "no's", but three cases received three "no" valuations.

Without being shown the judgments of this evaluator, the Project's supervisor was asked to arrive at her own independent judgments, using the criteria developed by the evaluator--criteria which she accepted as valid. She rated two cases as "yes" on all five criteria, one of them being the same one rated in this way by the evaluator; she, too, rated none of the cases "no" on all five. Only one case received four "yes" evaluations; none was given either four or three "no's". In only two of the 22 cases was there complete agreement between the two judges. Compression of the four designations into two produces a clearer picture, given in Table 25.

It is likely that the evaluator's overall judgments were slightly more critical because she perforce made them entirely on the basis of the written summaries, whereas the supervisor knew the students who produced them and their overall performance in the Project, and may have been influenced to some extent by this knowledge. There was a marked tendency on the part of the supervisor to rate "some" when the level of skill was not clearly considerable and "little" when it was not clearly absent, whereas the evaluator leaned in the direction of making more absolute judgments.

TABLE 25. SCORES ON FIVE CRITERIA USED TO ASSESS LEVEL OF SKILL ACHIEVED BY STUDENTS IN PROVIDING DIRECT SERVICES

Criteria	Evaluator		Supervisor	
	Yes or Some	Little or None	Yes or Some	Little or None
Compassionate View of the Problem	22	0	21	1
Understanding the Purpose of Contacts	12	10	16	6
Sensitivity to Defensive Reactions	15	7	16	6
Objectivity-Empathy	15	7	20	2
Helping Ability	16	6	15	7
Total	80	30	88	22

Table 25 indicates that there were appreciable differences between our two judges in regard to criterion 2, "understanding the purpose of visits and other contacts" and criterion 4, "objectivity-empathy." In relation to these two criteria, the evaluator saw less skill than the supervisor. There was almost complete agreement in regard to the other three criteria, the evaluator seeing slightly more skill than the supervisor in regard to "compassionate view of the problem" and "helping ability."

Despite these differences, there was substantial agreement between the two judges when rating of skill level is viewed in relation to individual students: in the case of only four students was there sizable disagreement. For them, neither judge gave a single "yes" rating, but the evaluator gave nine "no's" to the supervisor's one "no". Thus, while there was agreement that these four students were not among the best, the evaluator considered them more lacking in skill than did the supervisor. The judges agreed completely in regard to "compassionate view of problem"; disagreed appreciably on "understanding the purpose of visits or other contacts" and on "objectivity-empathy" (as for the total group of students); and disagreed somewhat concerning "sensitivity to defensive reactions" and "helping ability." In all disagreements, the evaluator saw less skill than the supervisor. The supervisor's extensive personal contacts with Project students, and her formal and informal discussions of case activities may have provided her with a more favorable view of student intervention. This point is underlined by a previous comment indicating students' difficulty in expressing themselves clearly and logically in the English language. Differences in judgment concerning these four students were resolved by the Project director following separate discussions with the evaluator and the supervisor.

For a student to be considered as sufficiently skilled in providing direct service to enter professional practice, he had to demonstrate at least some degree of skill in relation to all five criteria.

Presented below are three cases (with all names changed) prepared by three students. The first (Robert Hopkins) is a case about which there was complete agreement between the two judges, with the rating of "yes" given for all five criteria; the second (Davis) is a case about which there was substantial agreement between the two judges, with the rating of one "yes" (compassionate view) and four "little-no's" given by the supervisor and five "little-no's" by the evaluator; the third (Winfrey) is a case about which there was considerable disagreement, with the supervisor giving four "some's" and one "little", while the evaluator gave one "some", one "no" and three "little's."

ROBERT HOPKINS (Complete agreement regarding high degree of skill)

Robie was placed with the Welfare Department on October 25, 1968 by his father and stepmother. Mr. and Mrs. Hopkins stated that they were no longer able to cope with Robie's uncontrollable behavior which was intensified by their negative reaction to him.

Mr. William Hopkins, Robie's father, retains legal custody of his son and pays for his foster care. He is burdened with guilt about Robie and blames himself for much of what has happened to his son. He sees Robie very rarely.

Up to the present, Mr. Hopkins has felt that Robie is in the best of all possible environments with the Monroes, his foster parents, and that he has made remarkable progress in their home. Mr. Hopkins has been bitterly opposed to Robie living with Janet Anderson, the former Mrs. Hopkins. He is convinced that any environment she can provide will be emotionally undesirable.

Mrs. Anderson was first seen by a DSS worker in June, 1960 when she was 17 years old. She was seeking assistance for herself and Robie, 6 months old. Her marriage to Mr. Hopkins lasted 1-1/2 years and was annulled by her husband. She requested foster care placement for her child, ostensibly because of her unstable working hours. However, it wasn't until some time later, after much passing about among parents and relatives and a change in legal custody, that Robie was placed by his father and stepmother.

Mrs. Anderson has been married four times and is currently divorced. She has had three children since Robie; a boy, John, who has been relinquished for adoption; a girl, Diana, who lives with her father, Tom Anderson; and a baby girl, Joan, who was born out of wedlock and who lives with her.

Robie's mother is a very pleasant young woman, outgoing and friendly. Her relationships with men have been transitory and her instability has been described by former workers as a symptom of emotional disturbance.

Since April, 1971, Mrs. Anderson has seen Robie on a regular basis. Her visits have gone so well that Robie has recently been spending almost every weekend with his mother. She seems to have matured to some extent over this time, so that her attitudes about Robie's difficulties have become more realistic. Because of Robie's emotional involvement with his parents and particularly, his mother, has been this worker's intention and plan to be as supportive as possible of Mrs. Anderson's relationship with Robie, in an effort to work toward a level which would allow her to function at the very minimum as a "part time mother," but hopefully, to assume full responsibility for his care in the future.

Mrs. Anderson feels that Robie should not be in a foster home but should be with one of his parents. Since Mr. Hopkins has not indicated a desire to have Robie with him, Mrs. Anderson has been working toward having Robie live with her. She is currently on welfare and has not considered returning to her work as a waitress since she feels that the demands of this work had a great deal to do with her inability to attend to the needs of her family in the past. She has rented a two bedroom apartment in order to have adequate housing for Robie.

Robie was born on January 16, 1959, and for most of his formative years, has led an unstable, insecure life. As a consequence, he has developed a poor self-image and patterns of responding to life which are aggressive and hostile. He has been described by his teachers as "the most disliked child in school" who creates trouble for other children and lies and steals.

Robie is currently in an emotionally handicapped class and his teacher, as others before her, feels that Robie has much potential and is quite bright, but is under-achieving because of his emotional difficulties.

When Robie was placed with the agency, he stayed with six different foster families for weekend visits and all resulted in negative decisions regarding a permanent stay. (Robie once pointed out one of these homes to me and described it as "a place I liked but they didn't want me"). Eventually, he was placed in the Monroe home where, his foster parents and former workers felt, he was making remarkable progress.

Jean Monroe is an attractive, earnest young woman, 29 years old, who is somewhat reserved and controlled. Her husband, Jim, also 29, like his wife is quiet and contained, but with occasional touches of humor. Mr. and Mrs. Monroe became foster parents in 1966 and they ultimately adopted their first foster child, Douglas, born 1-20-66. They also have a natural child, Marilyn, born 4-20-65. In addition to Robie, two other foster children are in this home, 2-1/2 year old twin boys.

The Monroes have a very strong sense of family in which they function as a self-sufficient, rather insular unit. They view their lives strictly in terms of their religion. They are Fundamentalists, living by a literal interpretation of the bible. They have a deep belief that their faith is the answer to all problems and difficulties.

Mrs. Monroe is particularly committed and enthusiastic about her child rearing practices which she calls "training". Any angry act, or expression of temper or disobedience is punished by a spanking. This is given without anger and is immediately followed by loving and comforting the child. This is seen as training the child "in the way he should go" (towards Christ). What these practices and attitudes attempt to encourage are stoicism, acceptance, and obedience to a higher authority. The emphasis is on correcting the undesirable behavior rather than attempting to understand underlying causes.

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Robie's behavior is seen by the Monroes as an attempt to "get away with" as much as he can rather than as a symptom of an emotional disturbance. They have felt that the school has been too lenient with Robie and would have better results with him if they punished his misbehavior.

In the Spring of 1971, it was suggested to the Monroes by the school that Robie receive therapy in an attempt to get at some of the problems which continue to disturb him. Upon the request of the school, I again presented this suggestion to Mrs. Monroe in November of 1971. I felt that the relationship I had developed with her would permit me to discuss this matter without arousing her hostility and, therefore, securing more positive results. However, in spite of my attempts to convince her of the reality of the school's beliefs in the need for Robie to have psychiatric counseling and, in spite of approaching her from her own framework, that is, the possibility of a "christian" psychiatrist, she refused. This refusal appears to have been based upon a mistrust of psychiatry and psychiatrists whom the Monroes view as manipulators; agents who excuse and even condone actions which are undesirable.

Aside from their unwillingness to cooperate in this area, the Monroes have shared their feelings, attitudes, and concerns to a great extent with this worker. Within their religious orientation, they have been willing to expend considerable energy in working with Robie on his problems. They have worked well with Mrs. Anderson and have been as flexible and undemanding as possible in order to allow for visits between her and Robie. This they have done in spite of the fact that they disapprove of Mrs. Anderson and her way of life.

Robie's school psychologist views the Monroes as unrealistic and their influence as emotionally damaging.

On December 6, 1971, Robie was to return to the Monroe home after a week's stay with his mother. He became very upset in the classroom and was almost hysterical about returning to his foster home. Late that afternoon, Robie disappeared from the Monroe home and was found quite a distance away early that evening by Mr. Monroe. He later admitted that he was going to his mother.

On December 9, Mr. Hopkins, Mrs. Anderson, Mrs. Monroe, and myself met to discuss how we might help Robie. We talked about the fact that his foster home placement seemed to be inadequate for Robie's needs in view of his particular situation. Given the realities of this, Mr. Hopkins feels that Robie should be allowed to live with his mother. He recognizes that no placement, institutional or foster home, will be helpful to Robie as long as he wants to be with his mother so desperately. Mr. Hopkins intends to retain legal custody and to supervise Robie's upbringing very closely.

One aspect of this case which has been especially gratifying has been the determination of all involved to work towards a mutually agreeable plan which would be beneficial to Robie. This was evident at the December 9 meeting. Everyone concerned made a pronounced effort to place his own desires, prejudices, and animosities second to this child's needs.

Mrs. Monroe has been most helpful in bringing about this meeting among natural parents, foster parents, and staff. She has said that she has gained a great deal from the events of the past few weeks and has reached some revised conclusions regarding her approach to child rearing. From her comments, it might be inferred that, at the present time, the Monroes are feeling their loss keenly, as well as experiencing doubts about their roles. It is important that they be given the opportunity to work out these feelings.

In this connection, I have recently talked with the natural parent worker for the Monroes. I have also discussed our doubts regarding the Monroes as foster parents. They are resistant to therapeutic services and are hostile to any orientation favoring this approach. Their home is not satisfactory for the older child for whom the Monroe's world presents too much of a conflict with his reality or the emotionally disturbed child who needs professional help.

We recommend that Robie be given psycho-therapeutic counseling as soon as possible. Hopefully, while dealing with many of his deep-seated problems, this approach may be helpful with the many difficulties which may arise from his new environment. Mrs. Anderson is willing to seek professional help for dealing with these problems. She is very receptive to close supervision and support from a caseworker both for herself and Robie. Mr. Hopkins has also said that he welcomes agency help in this regard.

It is conceivable that Mrs. Anderson will not be successful in her attempts to care for Robie. In this event, we recommend that this boy be placed in a group home. Unlike a foster home, this setting will require no strong emotional ties which in Robie's situation have already developed with his natural parents.

Mrs. Anderson has had a service worker who has worked with her for over a year. In the interest of efficiency and coordination of services, it is our recommendation that one worker service both Robie and Mrs. Anderson and that further casework services be provided as requested and outlined.

WAYNE DAVIS
JOHN DAVIS
GERALD DAVIS
RICHARD HALL
JOE MITCHELL (Substantial agreement regarding almost total lack of skill)

The five Davis boys were declared dependent children of the Court February 5, 1970, following the death of their mother from an overdose of heroin. She had sole custody of the children. Wayne, John and Gerald were placed in the home of their maternal grandmother, Mrs. Geraldine Cooper, where Richard Hall had been living since infancy. Joe Mitchell was placed in the home of his paternal grandparents, Mr. and Mrs. Ralph Henderson, at their request.

Prior to the mother's death, the family had been referred to the Probation Department because the mother was neglecting the children and was suspected of drug abuse.

The natural mother, Helen Jones, was the fourth of nine children, born out of wedlock to Edith Foster in 1948. While Helen was growing up, her mother was described as promiscuous and her home was declared by the Court as unfit. Helen was cited for truancy and disturbing the peace and, after tenth grade, she dropped out of school.

The natural father of Wayne, John and Gerald, reported to be Michael Davis, has never shown an interest in these children nor supported them. His whereabouts are unknown. Richard Hall's birth was the result of a casual relationship. His natural father's whereabouts are likewise unknown. The father of Joe Mitchell was discharged from the army in the Spring of 1971. He is currently residing temporarily in the home of his sister, and is not working. He sees Joe only when he visits his parents, which is irregularly and rarely.

Wayne, the oldest of the Davis children, was born February 28, 1963. He is in the second grade and achieving satisfactorily. His teacher reports that he has been seeing the school social worker because of his hostile and aggressive behavior. Wayne has asthma and is required to have injections once a week to prevent a recurrence of hospitalization.

John, born November 22, 1963, is in an educationally handicapped second grade class. His teacher reports that he is doing very well and has no special problems.

Gerald, born December 12, 1964, is in the first grade. After an initial period of difficulty he seemed suddenly to change and was nominated for "good citizen" of his class. His academic work is a bit below grade level, but he seems to be motivated to do his best. His grandmother reports that he wets the bed. As yet, no action has been taken to determine the cause or to correct the situation.

Richard Hall, born March 28, 1966, is in kindergarten. His teacher reports that he is very shy and has had difficulty participating in class activities. Recently, he appears to be improving in these areas. The teacher also reports that Richard has an umbilical hernia and sometimes complains of pains in the stomach area. The social worker has suggested to the foster mother that he should be taken to a doctor to determine if surgery is indicated.

Joe Mitchell, Jr. is a happy well-cared for two year old. Joe has no physical or emotional problems.

The children's maternal grandmother, Mrs. Geraldine Jones Foster Cooper is 43 years old and the mother of nine children. Earlier she was declared an unfit mother due to promiscuity and child neglect, but she is now strongly motivated to provide her grandchildren with a stable home life. Financial problems require that she work full-time. Within the past year she married Robert Cooper, the father of her two younger children, with whom she had lived for eight years.

Mr. Cooper, 53 years old, has been employed by a construction company for thirty years. He is presently unemployed due to a back injury sustained on the job.

The family lives in a large, comfortable, rented house which is always neat and clean.

Mr. and Mrs. Ralph Henderson are the parents of seven children but only two sons live at home. When their grandson, Joe Mitchell, Jr., came to live with them Mrs. Henderson stopped work in order to devote more time to his care. She is a pleasant, understanding woman in her middle forties and an excellent homemaker and mother.

Mr. Henderson is in his late forties and worked as a gardener until recently when he received a back injury on the job. His unemployment has placed a financial strain on the Henderson budget.

The Hendersons live in a large neatly arranged home which they are buying. They devote considerable time to the care and upkeep of the house and its grounds.

Both the Hendersons have indicated that they would care for Joe as long as is needed as they have a deep affection for him.

Wayne, John, Gerald, and Richard should continue to live with their maternal grandparents, Mr. and Mrs. Cooper, as dependent children of the Court. However, their legal status should not remain in limbo. Since paternity was not established for any of the children before their mother's death and the whereabouts of the natural fathers is unknown, the possibility and advisability of taking action to establish legal guardianship should be explored with the Coopers.

In the meantime, the social worker should continue to assist them with problems associated with the children's physical and emotional difficulties.

Joe Mitchell, Jr.'s legal status should also be clarified. His father has expressed interest in having his parents, Mr. and Mrs. Henderson, continue giving him care. A permanent plan needs to be developed.

JOSEPH ALLEN WINFREY (Considerable disagreement regarding moderate vs. low level of skill)

Josephy Allen Winfrey, aged three, first appeared before the Court on February 4, 1969. His mother, Julia Winfrey, had been a Ward of the Court since June, 1966 for incorrigibility and drug abuse. After completing a program for drug addiction at the State Hospital, she gave birth to Joseph and, against the advice of her probation officer, decided to keep the baby. Shortly thereafter, she began leaving home for several days at a time, associating with people who were involved with drugs and left Joseph's care to the grandmother. The grandmother had indicated that she did not want the continued complete responsibility for the minor and requested removal of the child from her home.

Joseph was adjudged a dependent child of the Court on February 4, 1969 when his mother's whereabouts were unknown and his father's identity unestablished. Joseph is bi-racial. His mother is Caucasian and his father Black.

On February 5, 1969, Joseph Winfrey was placed in the home of Mr. and Mrs. Morris, 55 and 57 years old, respectively. Mr. Morris is a carpenter in the construction business. The Morrises were married in 1940 and shortly afterward migrated to California from Tennessee where they were born, to seek employment.

In August of 1969, Mrs. Morris suffered a stroke caused by a blood clot. At present, Mrs. Morris is not able to get around without her walker and is assisted in her housekeeping and child care duties by a relative.

The Morris family is very active in the Baptist Church where Mr. Morris has been minister for the past 17 years.

Joseph's foster siblings include Margaret, 13, and George, 16, who is an honor student in high school. The children are extremely well mannered and polite.

The Morris family live in their own home which is impeccably maintained and of ample size for the five member family to live comfortably. Because of Mr. Morris' skills in carpentry he has remodeled and added on to the family house. The home is situated in a neighborhood where there are many children with whom Joseph plays.

At the present time, the natural mother's whereabouts are still unknown.

Mr. and Mrs. Morris are very fond of Joseph and have expressed a desire to adopt him. Since the time of placement, three years ago, they have provided for Joseph as if they were the natural parents. When he came to this family, he had no clothes, only what he wore. His physical health was below normal. He was underfed and undernourished.

Joseph has made an excellent adjustment to the Morris family. It is the only home he knows. To seek another placement for him would be a devastating experience, emotionally.

The adoption unit has been alerted and adoption possibilities are being studied at the present time with the foster parents being seriously considered as adoptive parents.

ASSESSMENT OF STUDENT READINESS TO ENTER PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE

As explained earlier (Chapter 2), five criteria were developed by Project staff in order to assess student readiness for entering professional practice: ability to collect and organize information meaningful for dealing with a given problem or situation, ability to interpret information collected in relation to client needs, ability to communicate orally and in written form, ability to provide direct service with at least some degree of skill, and ability to establish and maintain constructive working relationships with others (not clients) in the social services network. The Project director and the student supervisor jointly rated each student in relation to each criterion. They then combined these ratings in order to arrive at a judgment on readiness in the following manner: students adjudged as ready for professional practice had demonstrated unquestionable and consistent ability

Chart 7–1

EVALUATION of 25 PROJECT STUDENTS

Readiness to Enter Professional Practice

CRITERIA USED:

Ability to:

- . COLLECT AND ORGANIZE INFORMATION
- . INTERPRET INFORMATION PROPERLY
- . COMMUNICATE ORALLY AND IN WRITING
- . PROVIDE DIRECT SERVICE
- . DEVELOP WORKING RELATIONSHIPS

NO. OF STUDENTS	*EVALUATION*
9	**Ready** MEET ALL CRITERIA
7	**Good Potential** MEET MOST CRITERIA, BUT NEED ADDITIONAL FIELD WORK EXPERIENCE
9	**Not Ready** NO POTENTIAL

in relation to all five criteria; students adjudged as having potential for professional practice but needing additional field work experience to attain readiness had demonstrated some ability in relation to all five criteria; students adjudged as not being ready for professional practice and without potential for it demonstrated little or no ability in relation to at least three criteria.

It was the judgment of the Project staff that nine of the 25 students involved in direct service, 36%, were ready to enter professional practice at the end of their field work instruction: that they can function satisfactorily within the traditional supervisor-worker arrangements, but more productively in a team situation in which their special abilities can be used more consis-

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tently and fully. Four of these nine students were considered especially strong, having manifested leadership qualities.

Another seven students, 28%, the judges considered as not ready to enter professional practice without further field instruction. Three in this group were seriously handicapped by poor communication skills; two did not demonstrate enough initiative because of continuing insecurity; one student was still struggling to work out her own identity problem; and one had not yet achieved a comfortable level of acculturation to American ways of life. It was thought, however, that the potential of these seven students was such that additional field work could prepare them for an acceptable level of readiness to enter professional social work practice.

The judges found that the remaining nine students, 36%, were neither ready for professional practice nor endowed with a significant potential for developing such readiness. One student in this group was not interested in social work; three lacked sufficient intellectual capacity to grasp concepts, to analyze client situations and to work out interventive strategy; the remaining five students were beset with a variety of serious personality problems of sufficient pervasiveness and duration to preclude satisfactory functioning in a helping relationship in the foreseeable future.

In all three groups, the length of involvement in direct service ranged from six to nine months, in similar proportions.*

In regard to the five students who did not render direct service, their Project performance in other areas led the Project director and supervisor to conclude that three had some potential for social work, while two did not.

It is important to add that no single factor--demographic characteristics, motivation for entering the social work major, views in regard to the kind of problems that might be encountered in serving children and parents, previous work experience in social work or other fields, whether paid or voluntary, or social class--correlated either positively or negatively with a student's attainment of readiness for practice. The variable which had the greatest predictive potential, although not a completely uniform one, was grade point average. Students who were considered ready for beginning social work practice were all at least B students; those who demonstrated potential for developing readiness with additional field work instruction were all in the high C or low B range; and those who were deemed to have no potential for becoming practicing social workers were, with two exceptions, low or average C students.

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* It will be recalled (Chapter 6) that 43.3% of the students received As for their field work; 48.4% earned Bs; and 8.3% earned Cs. This distribution is quite different from the percentages in regard to readiness for professional practice, 36, 28 and 36, and to some readers might suggest a discrepancy. It should be remembered that the grade distribution applied to 30 students, while the readiness for professional practice distribution applied to 25 students--those who had engaged in direct service. Of the five who did not render direct service, none received a C grade, although some received low Bs. It may also be noted that the work of some students who were judged as having no potential for direct service indicated that they had some ability for other social work-related activities, such as research and public relations. In this group also the grades earned ranged for low As to low Bs.

OBJECTIVE III:

TO DESIGN A MODEL FOR A CHILD WELFARE SERVICES DELIVERY SYSTEM IN A PUBLIC AGENCY THAT WILL MAKE MULTIPLE, HIGH-QUALITY CHILD WELFARE SERVICES AVAILABLE AND ACCESSIBLE TO CHILDREN IN NEED OF THEM --
CHAPTERS 8, 9 AND APPENDIX B.

Chapter 8

ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT OF CHILD WELFARE SERVICES--A MODEL

INTRODUCTION

The urgency of the need for change in public social services is recognized by everyone, including the President of the United States* and all those affected by or involved in such services. There is growing concern that the delivery of social services leaves something to be desired. To both the public and the professionals, it has become apparent that traditional delivery systems must change with the times, and that the time is now.

Instead of basic improvements, there has occurred a piling up of programs one upon another, together with an accretion of separate laws, regulations and administrative issuances. Communications between agencies have been impeded by inflexible structures, restrictive laws and criteria which have militated against any coherent interpretation of an over-all human service philosophy or strategy (190).

The implementation of a growing recognition that most people are best served close to home, through community-based services, is often restricted severely by lack of resources.

Social services continue to be designed by bureaucracies remote from the social context in which people live. Relevance, acceptability and appropriateness of services to the differing life-styles and needs of a heterogeneous population cannot be assured in this fashion. Lack of accountability for results, for solutions to problems, add to the antipathy of the community toward the established service structure (190).

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* "Today it often seems that our service programs are unresponsive to the recipient's needs and wasteful of the taxpayers' money. A major reason is their extreme fragmentation. Rather than pulling many services together, our present system separates them into narrow and rigid categories... We need a new approach to the delivery of social services--one which is built around people and not around programs... We need to break through rigid categorical walls, to open up narrow bureaucratic compartments, to consolidate and coordinate related programs in a comprehensive approach to related problems..." (140).

It is widely recognized that social service policies and goals have not reflected the changing philosophy and attitude of the community itself, of the public demand for better service, at the least expense.

While the need for change pervades all levels of government concerned with the delivery of social services, this study concentrates on those public agencies that serve people directly and on changes that should take place at that level. Further, within that sphere of interest, this study is particularly concerned with the child welfare delivery system.

MAJOR ISSUES IN DELIVERING CHILD WELFARE SERVICES

These issues appear to be the following:

1. The Need to Change Organizational Structure and Relationships. Fragmented organizations with separate units for each aspect of service (e.g. Adoptions, Day Care, Foster Care, Shelter Care, Protective Services, and Dependent and Neglected Children) result in fragmented delivery patterns. Inevitably, excessive fragmentation leads to breakdowns in coordination, lack of cohesiveness in services, and lack of flexibility in perceiving and solving client problems, a too-narrow specialization of social work skills, and lack of opportunity to obtain more versatile and relevant professional training, are related by-products (102).

Organizational placement of child welfare service units in the public welfare hierarchy represents another area of concern. It is considered essential that the organizational element charged with child welfare functions be established at the highest administrative level within the agency (6).

Lack of organizational and staff coordination, another deficiency, lowers quality of care. In some agencies, for example, records of foster children do not always indicate what, if any, medical care was made available. This may be traced to poor communications and lack of coordination between the social work and the medical staffs. Often, the case record form is not designed to accommodate required health information; nor is there evidence of periodic evaluation of records to assure the inclusion of such information or to indicate the need, if any, for corrective medical attention.

Another problem in delivery of social services concerns the relationships of the social welfare organization and/or social work staff with other agencies involved in services. Obviously, uncoordinated relationships among separate agencies diminish the effectiveness of services for the client. Further, overly informal working relationships among seperate agencies may lead to coordination failures and to misunderstandings as to which agency has responsibility for critical actions in delivering services. The necessity to have formal working relationships is recognized; however, such relationships must avoid rigidity, must be clearly understood and genuinely accepted by all parties.

2. The Need for Accessibility of Services. When a client wants assistance, he wants it here and now. The need of the client is the over-riding

1.1

consideration. To achieve this, many emphasize the desirability of decentralizing services to neighborhoods (36;15). On the other hand, it is recognized that this kind of decentralization may be too costly (165).

3. The Need for Availability of Services. Equally important is the availability of a full range of services to meet individual needs. The agency has a responsibility to assure that the client seeking assistance is offered or referred to the appropriate type of service (66;151).

It is apparent that steps to improve accessibility must include consideration of availability of the varied services needed in the particular community or circumstances. This again emphasizes the importance of thorough planning and coordination of services provided by the different agencies concerned, as well as the need for the fixing of responsibility for specific actions when referrals to other agencies are involved.

4. Duplicating and Overlapping Services. Resource limitations often dictate centralization of services and facilities to cut down overhead and administrative costs--yet service accessibility might seem to dictate decentralization as a means of effecting desired and needed improvements.

In centralization, the likelihood of duplicating facilities and services is diminished or eliminated--whereas decentralization brings up the problems of providing accessibility and availability of services, without duplication and overlap.

Some argue that overlapping of services is not necessarily an evil. It is also possible, they note, that undesirable duplication has been overemphasized mistakenly, since different organizational elements may focus on different types of intervention for the same case (151). Others, however, point out that the current emphasis on maximum economy in services is reflected by the fact that governmental funds go only where comprehensive planning can be shown (102). Undoubtedly, some middle ground exists. The solution, perhaps, is one of better coordination rather than complete elimination of overlapping services (151).

5. Continuity and Flow of Services. Decentralization and fragmentation of organization bring with them the danger of interruption in the continuity or flow of services to the client (151).

Again, it seems clear that the solution of this type of problem is in improved coordination and communications among different agencies or organizational elements within the same agency.

The losses in cases in which continuity is interrupted are not confined to the client. Consider the amount of intensive effort expended by the welfare agency in carrying the client halfway along the path to recovery only to lose him because no one is charged with seeing the case through to a successful conclusion. The waste of agency effort in such cases may be doubled when the same client, at a later point in time, re-enters the system in an attempt to obtain the help he needed in the first place.

6. The Need for Involvement of the Community. It is widely recognized throughout the social services network that involvement of the community in

changes and improvements in services is essential to success. Consumer participation in public welfare matters is becoming a way of life (105).

The principal forms of such involvement have been advisory committees comprised of representatives of the community, and the use of indigenous and community workers as social service staff. The fact that these forms have not been consistently and uniformly effective suggests the need to develop new forms of community participation. In the opinion of the authors there is a compelling need for a more direct, on-going, involvement of consumers in the every-day delivery of services.

7. Manpower Utilization. There has been much concern about the "shortage" of qualified manpower in social welfare agencies--a shortage which seemed to have existed for decades, but which, in the authors' opinion, might not always have been real. Instead, the problem seems more to have been a chronic maldistribution and malutilization of personnel. While the trained professional is still the key manpower resource for social services work, the total manpower system for such work requires the proper utilization and distribution of manpower with varying degrees and varieties of skills--an appropriate "mix" of skills.* Concretely, this requirement centers around using social workers with MSW degrees in combination with those who have earned BA degrees in social work, and those with a lesser amount of social work education or with none at all; that is, in a differential use of manpower. The organizational structure of the agency and the scope and nature of its operations determine the appropriate mix. This would free the more highly trained workers for more skilled tasks (100;12;13).

There are other problems concerning manpower, among which are:

a. The rapid growth in the volume and scope of tax-supported welfare activities (23).

b. The need to provide social services of higher quality (23).

c. The lower competitive position of social work relative to other professions (12).

d. The tendency for many MSWs to have comparatively short careers in the profession (12).

e. The need to recruit persons with more potential into the social services network (12).

f. The tendency of some professionals to retain a "closed shop" (100).

The distinction between activities that ought to be the exclusive province of the MSW and of those with lesser amounts of social work education is a difficult one. Various approaches to clarify this distinction have been attempted (12) and various manpower utilization patterns have been suggested (100). Experimentation has indicated that the team model, to be discussed later, is the most promising.

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* In this study we use the term "professional social worker" to include the baccalaureate degree holder as well as the MSW.

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8. The Need to Assure Effective Management and Produce Measurable Results. This need is made forcefully clear by certain recent developments, among these being:

a. Actions by the Department of Health, Education and Welfare to develop state reporting requirements on the effectiveness of "results" of services, and to establish "goal-oriented" social services systems that will be characterized by consistency in definition of services, by systematic and reliable tools for measuring the effectiveness of services, and by program and budget accountability (178).

b. Increasing concern by professionals in the social service field that the delivery of services is uneven, uncoordinated, improperly organized, misunderstood, and that services are minimally utilized and supported. Evidence of this concern is illustrated by numerous professional papers and studies aimed at new managerial concepts for social service delivery (30;172).*

AGENCY ORGANIZATION FOR CHILD WELFARE SERVICES

While much of the literature and research dealing with the team model relate to social service teams responsible for the full range of social work responsibilities, this study focuses on the field of child welfare. The child welfare agency organization and team models proposed here are nevertheless practical examples which can be adapted to the full range of social services.

1. Basic Premises. The following basic premises are of the greatest importance for the successful implementation of the child welfare agency organization (division) model:

a. The organizational element charged with child welfare responsibilities (Child Welfare Division) must be established as a major element of the department of social services within which it operates, and at an administrative level at least equal to other major elements of the department.

b. Responsibility for the full range of child welfare functions should be vested within a single organization to preclude fragmentation of services, to assure complete and coordinated services, and accountability to the community.

c. The Chief of the Child Welfare Division should act as the principal agent in the delivery of all welfare services to children. He should report directly to the director of the department responsible for social services, and participate fully in departmental policy-making, planning and programming matters concerning his area of responsibility.

---

* Some State agencies already have developed and implemented plans aimed at the same objectives of improved management as proposed by this study. The Minnesota Department of Public Welfare, for example, has developed a Statewide "County Social Service Plan for 1973" which incorporates a comprehensive management control system. Also, the Michigan Department of Social Services has developed a computerized "tracking system," for case file record-keeping and reporting as a means of standardized management and control. Both of these efforts exemplify how modern management methods may be adapted to improve existing social service delivery systems.

d. To assure the most direct means of service delivery, the decentralization principle governs to the extent practicable with establishment of child welfare teams operating from neighborhood-based centers, or mobile units, responsive directly to community needs.

e. Special emphasis must be placed on obtaining meaningful community involvement and participation in the child welfare program, through such means as the use of advisory committees, community and indigenous workers, and consumers (clients).

f. Administrative functions such as finance and accounting, housekeeping services, personnel, administration, etc. normally accomplished by centralized staff offices for the agency as a whole would continue to be carried out in the usual manner, without change, so far as the proposed organization model is concerned.

2. Functions of the Child Welfare Division. The general functions and goals of the Child Welfare Division are to provide a program of family and children's services designed to: strengthen family life and enhance family stability; promote the welfare and development of children; and protect children in danger of neglect, abuse or exploitation. The Child Welfare Division Model is responsible for the following activities:

a. Services to support and reinforce all forms of parental care, to include:

Social work service for children in their own homes;

Child protective service for neglected, abused and exploited children.

b. Services to supplement parental care or compensate for its inadequacies, to include:

Homemaker service for children;

Day Care service, both group and family day care, including services for children with special needs (such as emotionally disturbed and physically handicapped children).

c. Services to substitute wholly or in part for parental care, to include:

Foster family care service;

Group home care service;

Institutional care service;

Residential treatment service;

Adoption service.

d. Preventive services, to include:

Social action to improve and ensure conditions and services that will promote wholesome child development, strengthen family life and preserve the child's own home; and to reduce the incidence of circumstances that deprive children of the requirements for their optimal development;

Early case finding and intervention to protect children at risk and to avert unnecessary separation from their parents.

e. Regulation of agencies and facilities, to include:

Standard setting, licensing, certification, approval of agencies and facilities providing care and services for children (outside and inside their own homes).

f. Community planning of services for children and parents, to include:

Developing the full range of child welfare services and coordinating these services with one another and with the other social services and community resources serving children and families (income maintenance, family services, health services, mental health services, education, housing, legal and court services, vocational counseling and training, recreation).

g. Programming, budgeting, and management improvement services with respect to the child welfare activities of the agency, to include:

Development of plans and programs, budget preparation and execution, administrative management assistance, progress and statistical reporting and analysis, and reports management.

3. Organizational Structure of the Child Welfare Division Model. Next to be considered, and in line with the general functions previously discussed, is the organizational structure of the Child Welfare Division Model. The basic premises for the functioning of the organizational model are translated into chart form at Chart 8-1.

The chart depicts four major organizational elements, each of which is described below.

a. Office of the Chief, Child Welfare Division. The Chief of the Child Welfare Division is responsible for providing leadership and direction in all aspects of the child welfare program. The physical location of this office normally would be in the central office of the agency. Reporting to the Child Welfare Division Chief, and also located in the central office, would be three subordinate staff branches: Program and Budget, Service Coordination, and Management Assistance.

b. Program and Budget Branch. The model proposes a separate organizational unit, the Program and Budget Branch, within the Child Welfare Division, responsible for program planning, budgeting, program evaluation (to include program progress analysis, cost effectiveness, and manpower analysis), and program statistics and reports.

Chart 8–1

ORGANIZATION CHART ● CHILD WELFARE DIVISION MODEL

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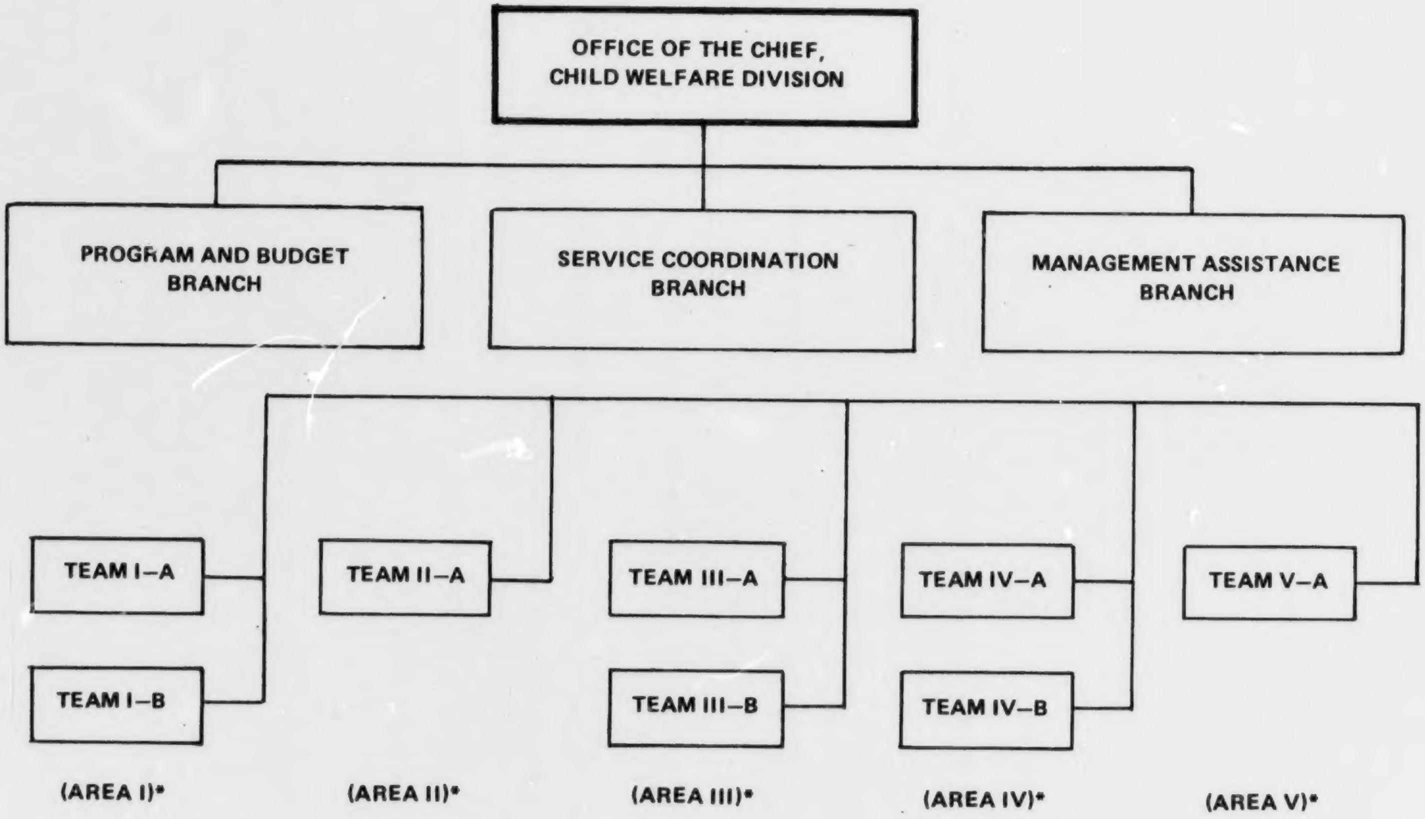
OFFICE OF THE CHIEF, CHILD WELFARE DIVISION
PROGRAM AND BUDGET BRANCH
SERVICE COORDINATION BRANCH
MANAGEMENT ASSISTANCE BRANCH
TEAM I–A
TEAM I–B
TEAM II–A
TEAM III–A
TEAM III–B
TEAM IV–A
TEAM IV–B
TEAM V–A
(AREA I)*
(AREA II)*
(AREA III)*
(AREA IV)*
(AREA V)*

Team assignments are by geographical area. See Charts 8-2 and 8-3 for further explanation.

(It is realized, of course, that some agencies may have a central staff concerned with some or all of these administrative functions for agency activities as a whole. But it is felt that, particularly in larger agencies, the establishment within the Child Welfare Division of the proposed Program and Budget Branch, which can devote all of its time and efforts to the important area of child welfare services, would be a more effective approach. This branch, of course, would furnish to the agency planning staff such data as may be required for overall agency programming, budgeting and related matters. Also the existence of this proposed division-level unit would reduce manpower requirements in the agency's central office since the latter would be relieved of the Child Welfare Division detailed workloads. Because of the great need for improved programming and evaluation in the team model concept, it is felt that this proposed branch is vital to the success of the model.)

Functions of the Program and Budget Branch, with respect to child welfare activities follow:

1. Programming Responsibilities:

Formulates plans and procedures for, and monitors operation of the programming system.

Analyzes programming documents and publications from higher authority and prepares implementing directives for the Division.

Develops and maintains the current fiscal year operating program and future years program guidance documents.

Participates in the conduct of agency program and resource reviews, including development of assumptions to be used, adequacy of program guidance, and statements of related problems and course of action.

Assists the agency's fiscal and accounting office in the development and maintenance of the agency "Management Structure", which segregates, identifies and defines program and activity categories, and lower elements, and which provides levels for monitoring and reporting on the status of funds, of manpower and performance data.

Supervises, coordinates and monitors program progress, and review and analysis activities, of the Division.

Coordinates and supervises development of periodic or special presentations by the Division Chief concerning status and progress of child welfare operations and programs.

Prepares special cost analysis studies relating to current or proposed activities.

2. Budgeting Responsibilities:

In coordination with the Agency's central budget office, formulates plans and procedures for the operation of the Division's budgetary system.

Prepares directives for the preparation and review of the Division's operating budget.

Prepares required budgetary material covering the Division's activities, for inclusion in the agency's budget document.

Supervises execution of approved operating budgets, including the review and monitoring of the status and utilization of funds.

Prepares financial management reports, as required.

c. Management Assistance Branch. This branch has, as it primary mission, the implementation and maintenance of modern management techniques with regard to the continuing operations of the Child Welfare Division. To attain sound levels of management competence in the organization requires recognition of the need for employment of trained management specialists.

(As in the case of the proposed Program and Budget Branch, it is possible that the central office of the agency may have in existence a staff office concerned with management assistance functions for the agency as a whole. If so, and the centralized office adequately can furnish needed assistance to the Child Welfare Division, then the requirement for the proposed Child Welfare Division Management Assistance Branch might be reduced or eliminated.)

Functions and responsibilities of the proposed Management Assistance Branch would be as follows:

Conducts studies and makes recommendations to improve administrative organization, including proper assignment of functions and responsibilities of the various elements of the Division, and appropriate design of the organizational structure.

Prepares the Division's organization manual, and maintains it on a current basis.

Exercises staff supervision over Division management improvement activities, and conducts programs designed to gain and maintain the participation of all Division personnel in achieving efficient and effective operations.

Conducts management studies and surveys, to include systems analysis and methods and procedures studies.

Administers work-simplification and work measurement programs and conducts procedural and work measurement studies, as required.

Conducts work simplification, work measurement and related management improvement in-service training courses for staff personnel.

Administers the Division's reports and records management program, and maintains surveillance to keep the reporting workload to the minimum essential.

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Provides management assistance services to organizational elements of the Division, as requested.

Keeps abreast of new developments in the administrative management of social service agencies, studies their applicability to Division activities, and recommends improvements.

d. Service Coordination Branch. The functions of this proposed branch are to:

Direct and coordinate the delivery of child welfare services in the Division area of responsibility.

Provide professional guidance, supervision, and counseling concerning the quality of social work conducted by the teams.

Analyze service needs of the community population, and the geographic area served.

Analyze caseloads and determine the number and skill requirements of teams in the various geographic subdivisions of the total area served.

Establish and supervise staff development programs, to include career progression and in-service training.

Investigate and license foster-family and day-care homes.

4. Decentralized Service Concept. Under the decentralized delivery service concept of the Division model, it is possible to delineate geographic subdivisions of the total county area to be served by the respective area teams, and to determine the number of teams required for each area. These determinations are based on analysis of physical and workload characteristics of the county, and considerations of population density, social problems, transportation facilities, geographic features, existing and potential caseloads, etc.

For purposes of illustration, we have used the San Mateo County (California) area to show how subdivisions and team requirements can be developed. San Mateo County is divided into 99 census tracts. Analysis of its characteristics indicates that the county can be subdivided into five service areas. A possible distribution of child welfare caseloads, using an arbitrary example of 2,000 cases, is shown in Chart 8-2.

The number of teams to be assigned to local areas is determined based on the expected workload of each area and other considerations as to physical practicality. The relationships of teams providing service and areas of assigned responsibility are illustrated in Chart 8-3, using San Mateo County as an example of the possibilities.

The decentralized model permits a great deal of flexibility. As workload increases in an area, the size of a particular team can be augmented by the addition of a social work member, or the number of teams can be increased. Or, when workload decreases in a given area, team members may be shifted to another team where their services can be more efficiently utilized.

CASELOAD DISTRIBUTION WITHIN A COUNTY – By Area

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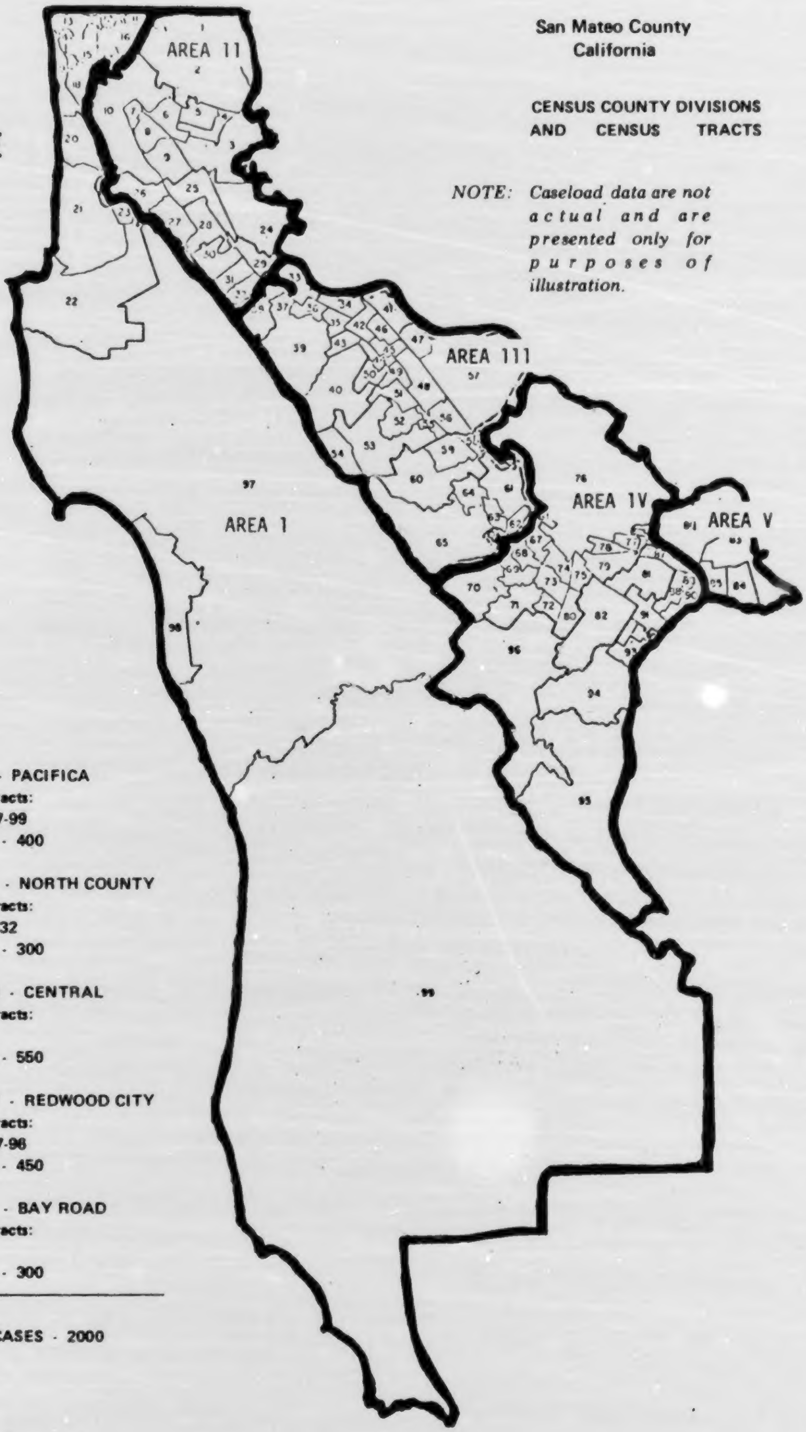

San Mateo County
California

CENSUS COUNTY DIVISIONS
AND CENSUS TRACTS

NOTE: *Caseload data are not actual and are presented only for purposes of illustration.*

AREA I - PACIFICA
Census Tracts:
11-23; 97-99
Caseload - 400

AREA II - NORTH COUNTY
Census Tracts:
1-10; 24-32
Caseload - 300

AREA III - CENTRAL
Census Tracts:
33-65
Caseload - 550

AREA IV - REDWOOD CITY
Census Tracts:
66-82; 87-96
Caseload - 450

AREA V - BAY ROAD
Census Tracts:
83-86
Caseload - 300

TOTAL CASES - 2000

CHILD WELFARE TEAM RESPONSIBILITY – By Team and Geographic Area Served

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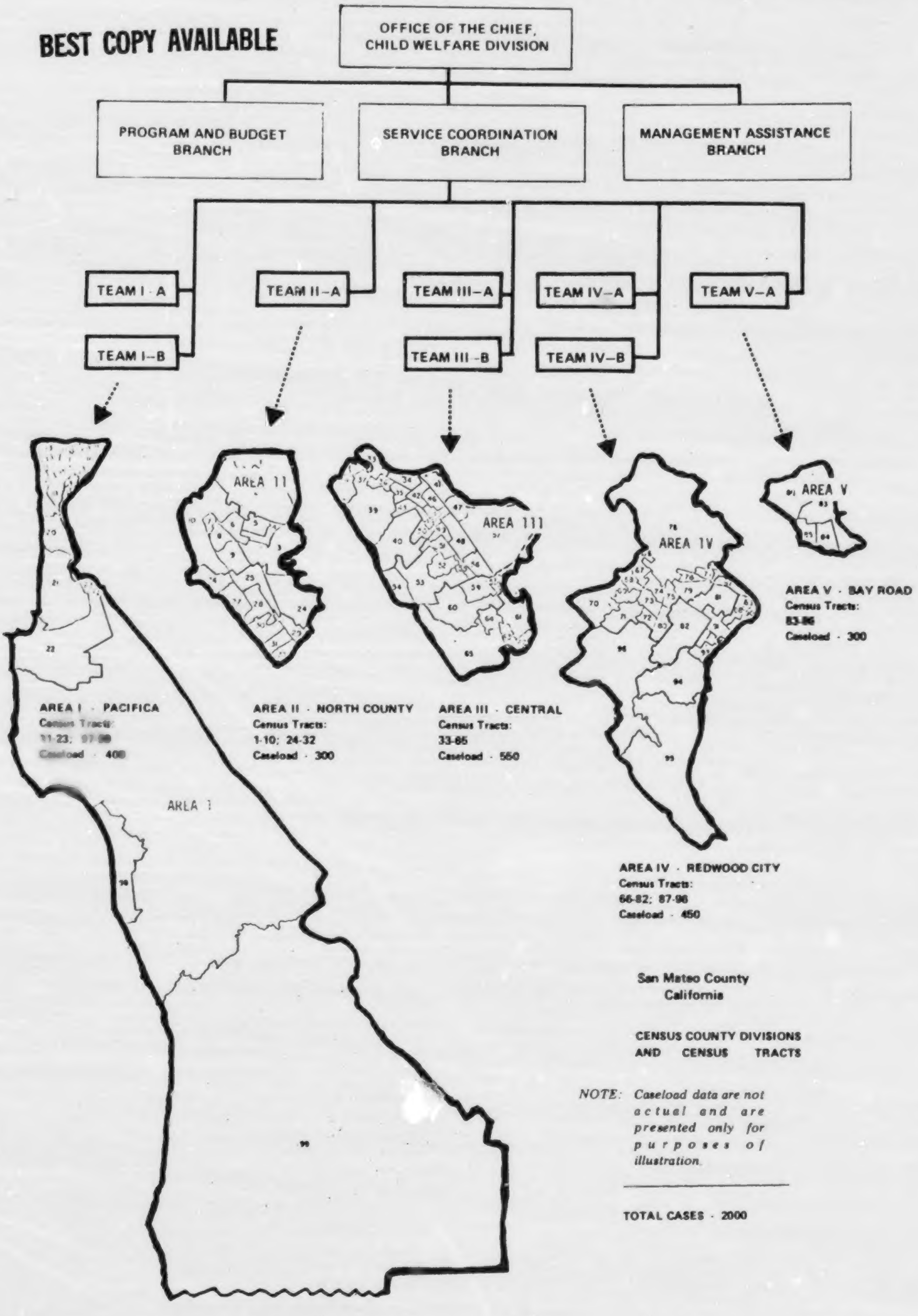
OFFICE OF THE CHIEF, CHILD WELFARE DIVISION
PROGRAM AND BUDGET BRANCH
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TEAM IV–A
TEAM IV–B
TEAM V–A
AREA I
AREA II
AREA III
AREA IV
AREA V

AREA I - PACIFICA
Census Tracts:
11-23; 97-99
Caseload - 400

AREA II - NORTH COUNTY
Census Tracts:
1-10; 24-32
Caseload - 300

AREA III - CENTRAL
Census Tracts:
33-65
Caseload - 550

AREA IV - REDWOOD CITY
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66-82; 87-96
Caseload - 450

AREA V - BAY ROAD
Census Tracts:
83-86
Caseload - 300

San Mateo County
California

CENSUS COUNTY DIVISIONS
AND CENSUS TRACTS

NOTE: *Caseload data are not actual and are presented only for purposes of illustration.*

TOTAL CASES - 2000

MANAGING THE CHILD WELFARE ORGANIZATION

1. The Need for Dynamic Management. Development of a child welfare organizational model would be incomplete without consideration, and incorporation into that model, of modern management methods essential for successful accomplishment of the role of the organization in the community.

The extent to which social service agencies have employed the many management technologies available to them varies considerably. Many agencies have not taken full advantage of the opportunity for developing and improving managerial competence. The evidence indicates that the use of modern, effective, management practices is the exception, rather than the rule.

The current literature includes numerous articles concerning modern management concepts and techniques and their application in social service agencies. With this growing emphasis on the need for management knowledge applicable to social services, why is this resource not utilized more frequently? Perhaps a principal reason is that the educational and career development of social welfare administrators and social workers has been devoted primarily to the professional aspects of the helping services, rooted in social sciences, with little exposure to the management sciences. This is not to infer that the social welfare administrator needs to become an "expert" in the various management disciplines, concepts and techniques involved. Rather, it is becoming essential for the manager of a social service agency to possess an understanding of the nature and applicability of modern, dynamic, management methods so that he can recognize when to employ them to improve the services provided by his organization (139).

It is the purpose of this discussion to focus attention upon the most important current management concepts to show how they can provide a solid management foundation for the proposed child welfare organizational model.

The manager of social services necessarily must be sensitive to the current and existing practical pressures under which he operates--public controls and opinion, political climate, and the availability of resources.

The presentation and discussion of methods for managing the child welfare organization in this chapter stem from a basic and unavoidable requirement--to provide services suitable for and acceptable to the community being served and to assure the taxpayer that these resources, in fact, are being used efficiently, effectively, economically and for the approved purpose. This chapter also suggests a comprehensive solution to the challenge and opportunity to establish a dynamic management approach to meet the demands of rapidly changing conditions in the public welfare field. The extension of the basic principles and procedures to be discussed below to broader levels of social services will be evident.

Note that we have used the term "dynamic management" to infer that management systems never "stabilize" into set patterns--that management and managers, and the work they produce and control always must change to meet changing conditions.

To illustrate the model for managing the child welfare organization, the discussions will cover each of the essential elements of the dynamic management system. (Chart 8-4 illustrates the relationships among these management concepts). The discussion will include the major essentials of:

a. Defining the mission of the organization.

b. Establishing the policies, objectives and goals needed to accomplish the mission.

c. Organization of functions for maximum effectiveness, efficiency and coordination of effort.

d. Managerial control systems:

1. Planning, programming and budgeting for effective use and control of resources.

2. Management information systems to keep the public, top management, and key staff personnel informed as to progress being made toward the established goals and objectives, and to provide means for solving problems and to revise operations as needed to meet changing conditions.

3. Manpower and financial control systems to relate resource utilization to the plans and objectives of the organization, and to provide for accountability in use of resources.

Each of these managerial categories is expanded below to illustrate the methods, techniques, and practices essential to a responsive and comprehensive management system.

THE "PROGRAM DOCUMENT" CONCEPT

At the outset, it should be understood that the formal, written documentation of every management control system is a mandatory feature and practice. This management model contemplates the full and detailed documentation of the entire plan, including each managerial phase discussed: preparation of written mission, policy, goal and objective statements, formal organization charting, written records, reports and analyses, formal job descriptions, formal accounting, budgeting, personnel control, and reporting systems. Once formalized, there also is inherent the essential task of constant, timely, updating and revision to maintain what we have called the "dynamic management system".

The formal documentation of the management system described in this chapter is a basic management device in itself. (The term "Program Document" will be used to refer to this comprehensive written management plan). Developing the agency's "Program Document" is an agency-wide action involving every organizational level, and every function and operation.*

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* Section B of Appendix B, presents, as an example, a skeleton "Program Document" for a child welfare agency, developed to illustrate the basic concept and consideration. An excellent discussion of the Program-Budgeting concept is contained in a Rand Corporation Memorandum prepared by Sue A. Haggart, et al., titled "Program Budgeting for School District Planning: Concepts and Applications" (70).

Chart 8—4

All Elements of the DYNAMIC MANAGEMENT SYSTEM
Aim Toward Accomplishment of the Mission

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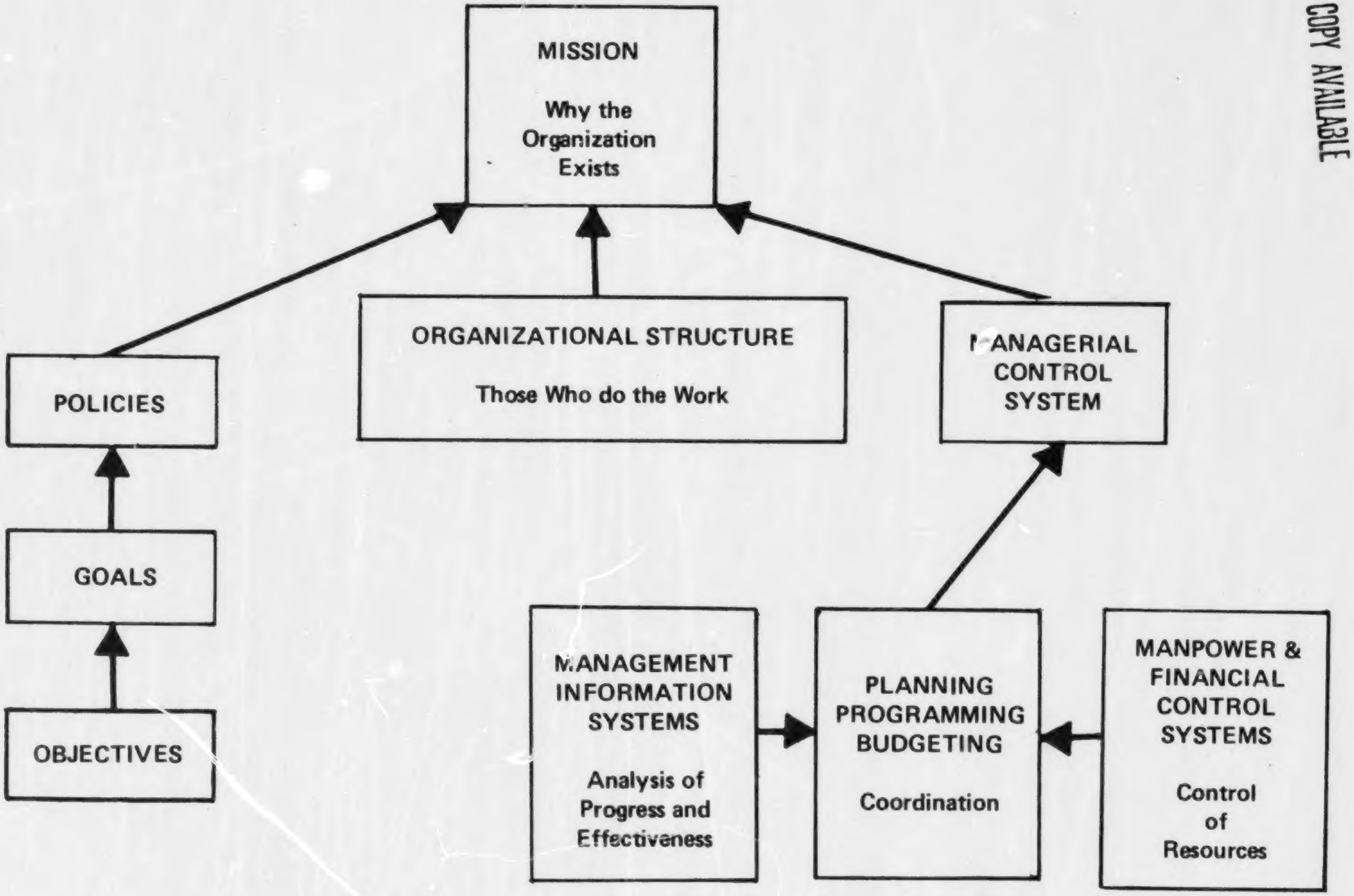
MISSION
Why the Organization Exists
POLICIES
GOALS
OBJECTIVES
ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE
Those Who do the Work
MANAGERIAL CONTROL SYSTEM
MANAGEMENT INFORMATION SYSTEMS
Analysis of Progress and Effectiveness
PLANNING PROGRAMMING BUDGETING
Coordination
MANPOWER & FINANCIAL CONTROL SYSTEMS
Control of Resources

The major elements of the formal "Program Document" are:

a. A basic management (functional) structure of activity accounts upon which all plans, programs, budgeting, financial accounting and reporting are based.

b. Formal statements of the missions, goals and objectives of the organization and of each subordinate operational element.

c. A detailed operational budget indicating planned expenditures within each activity specified in the management structure.

d. Detailed workload projections (upon which the budget is based) for each element and activity.

e. Detailed manpower and other support schedules showing how manpower, supplies and equipment are to be applied in carrying out the proposed plan of operation within the budget (available resources).

f. An administrative schedule indicating how input to the program document is to be prepared by each organizational element and how it is to be maintained in current fashion.

The usefulness of the "Program Document" to management can be summarized by its effect on the operations of the organization:

a. It ties together all operations with available resources (manpower, funds, supplies and equipment). It is a major coordinative device to assure full managerial control of operations.

b. It presents a cohesive, comprehensive, current, plan of action for the entire operation. It establishes the relative priorities of actions.

c. It relates operational accomplishment to the budgetary resources, and, in turn, to the fiscal accounting and reporting systems for management information and management decision-making.

d. It describes the workload of the organization related to resources and provides a firm base upon which to review and analyze progress against established goals and objectives.

Once prepared, the Program Document becomes a formal management approval and authority document under which all operations are carried out. No changes in operations are permitted that are not contained in the program document. (Emergency changes specifically directed by management being a necessary interim exception.) Thus, control is assured over the use of resources for the purposes planned. Changes in plans or conditions are reflected by timely, formal changes in the budgetary, workload, manpower and other schedules in the operating document, as these become necessary. Management review of progress is possible in terms of the goals and objectives established by management, and management reports are prepared relating workloads accomplished to resource availability and to financial and other accounting and reporting requirements.

Keeping in mind the above concept of the Program Document, we may now consider the further development of the management system model. Of primary consideration is the need to develop a meaningful and clear definition of the mission of the organization.

DEFINING THE MISSION OF THE CHILD WELFARE ORGANIZATION

In the sense used here, the term "mission" implies a statement of the broad role of the child welfare organization, to define what it does, and why it exists.

A most concise definition of child welfare services is that of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (86):

> *...those social services that supplement or substitute for parental care and supervision for the purpose of protecting and promoting the welfare of children and youth, preventing neglect, abuse, and exploitation, helping overcome problems that result in dependency, neglect, or delinquency, and, when needed, providing adequate care for children and youth away from their own homes, such care to be given in foster family homes, adoptive homes, child-caring institutions or other facilities.*

The Child Welfare League expands its definition to indicate what a comprehensive system of child welfare services should include (6). In abbreviated form, this definition provides for: support and reinforcement of parental care; supplemental services; substitute services; and preventive services.

While the above items can be characterized as definitions or statements indicating what child welfare consists of, they are not, per se, mission statements. To prepare a meaningful mission statement, we can, however, utilize these definitions to indicate what the child welfare organization is formed to do (why it exists). We could, from the above two definitions, as an example, formulate the following mission statement:

1. The Child Welfare Division has the mission of providing fully coordinated, comprehensive, effective, and timely assistance and services to qualified residents of the county, to include, when required:

    a. Provision of family support services aimed at maintaining or restoring the family as a self-sustaining unit.

    b. Provision of supplemental services, such as homemaker and day care services, to permit the family unit to remain intact and economically productive.

    c. Provision of substitute services, such as foster family care, adoption or institutional care when essential for the welfare of the family and child.

2. In addition, the Child Welfare Division shall participate in and coordinate with County Social Welfare Department and other public and voluntary welfare agencies in the regulation, inspection and licensing of child care facilities, and in other aspects of community activities affecting the child welfare programs.

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In effect, the mission statement becomes the "Charter" under which the Child Welfare Division enters into its various operations. Note that the mission statement purposely is broad and general; but it provides the parameters within which the agency will operate.

Once the mission of the organization is clearly understood, the next task of management is to develop and establish finite policies, goals, objectives and procedures by which the mission can be accomplished. Each policy, goal and objective, aims at the accomplishment of the total mission.

THE IMPORTANCE OF POLICY IN MANAGEMENT

The "policy" of an organization is its statement of philosophy--it often points up how the organization feels about its work. That policy statements affect greatly the ways in which work is accomplished is best illustrated by the familiar retail store policy that "the customer is always right!"

Policy statements may be broad or limited, depending upon the level of organization.

The Child Welfare League advocates a high-level "National Policy on Rights of Children"--statements which indicate what the organization wants to do:

> *1. To obtain a national commitment to the nation's children--that is, to establish a national policy on the rights of children by a declaration of the President--or by an act of Congress;*
>
> *2. To review legislation in all states and to urge enactment of such legal provisions at the Federal and State levels as are needed to implement a national policy;*
>
> *3. To establish within the administrative structure of voluntary as well as public agencies, and in the community, procedures to assure that children will receive the services to which they are entitled, including appeal and grievance procedures, judicial review of agency decisions when services are denied or deemed unsatisfactory, and measures to insure compliance (6:5).*

Constructing a sample policy statement for a County Child Welfare Division requires it to be appropriate for what that level of organization wishes to accomplish:

> *Services provided by the Child Welfare Division shall be carried out so as to assure that the child's right to care and protection is fulfilled and that he obtains whatever assistance is considered essential for him to develop fully and to function effectively in society.*

Such a statement is sufficiently broad to cover almost every action of the organization. Other implementing, more specific, policy statements also are necessary, such as:

> *It shall be the policy of this Division that child welfare services shall seek to restore or maintain the integrity of the family unit, and that separation of the child from its natural parent or parents shall not be considered until all measures to maintain the family unit have been exhausted.*

The implications and importance of policy statements on the way the organization will carry out its work are apparent. Determination of policy necessarily precedes establishment of goals and objectives.

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

The current literature is somewhat ambiguous as to the definitions and uses of the words "goal" and "objective." In this paper, the most common usage is adopted; that is, "goal" is used to identify broad, general, overall aims. The term "objective" delineates more finite, immediate ends of specific nature.* Related to foster family care, the "goal" might be: "to find the foster home best suited to the individual child's social, emotional, educational, and physical needs." One specific "objective" for achieving this goal, might be "to recruit x number of foster homes for x number of children in the community during the calendar year 1973."

With the development of objectives, the organization comes to grips with the day-to-day work to be done. To recruit "x number of foster homes" implies definite actions, for example to:

1. Survey foster home possibilities in the community.

2. Establish a publicity campaign to invite applications by potential foster families.

3. Study and evaluate foster family applications.

4. Establish a register of approved foster homes.

Having outlined the importance of establishing agency policies, goals and objectives, we now may turn to a discussion of the organization and management control systems which must be installed to assure effective accomplishment of the mission of the organization.

For purposes of following the discussion of this management model, the reader should bear in mind that this model is structured specifically towards:

a. A child welfare division organization at county-level.

b. A service delivery organization based upon the team concept.

c. Adoption of managerial concepts currently employed in or contemplated in state and federal agency practice.

---

* A typical development of these terms appears in the HEW pamphlet "Differential Use of Staff in Family and Child Welfare Services" (75).

THE PLANNING, PROGRAMMING, AND BUDGETING SYSTEM (PPBS)

One of the most important administrative management innovations in recent years was the introduction into the Federal Government of the Planning, Programming, Budgeting System. Launched in the Defense Department in the early 1960's, PPBS subsequently was introduced--in 1965--into other Federal executive departments and agencies by Executive Order.

The adoption of PPBS by HEW, in fiscal 1966, is of prime significance to state and local social service agencies because of the essential relationships and interdependence of national, state and local programs. The extent of implementation of PPBS among state and local jurisdictions has varied considerably, but noticeably with little involvement at the local (county) level, so that its implications and impact have not been fully recognized. As one major effort, the George Washington University State-Local Finance Project, has been engaged in developing pilot programs to install PPBS in five states, five counties, and five cities. According to informal reports received in HEW, a number of cities and state jurisdictions not involved in the GWU pilot program also were considering adoption of the system (86).

HEW recognizes that "PPBS can best succeed at the national level with a parallel system in state and local agencies" (186). But it also recognizes that achieving nation-wide uniformity of a system such as PPBS has many obstacles in its path—differences among states and communities in program responsibilities, population characteristics, organizational structures, program objectives, etc. To move agencies toward the achievement of uniform and parallel systems at all governmental levels, participating agencies are being exposed, increasingly, to the necessity for integrating their local planning, programming, and budgeting procedures with the Federal system.

The Federal PPBS concept is used as an illustration of this type of coordinative managerial control system. Local agencies may not operate within such a system, but the basic features are sound and adaptable to local situations. The local agency administrator, at least, should be familiar with this concept.

OVERVIEW OF THE CHILD WELFARE MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

A review of the current literature on PPBS, and other managerial concepts, indicates that the principles and theory of general management are well covered.

The management system proposed in this study first requires the supervisor of each organizational element to accumulate specific data and information in accordance with an organization-wide plan. He must provide data on past and expected (projected) workloads for the forthcoming fiscal or calendar year (whichever is used). He must relate to these expected workloads, specifically, the details on:

a. How many and what types of personnel are needed to do the work required.

b. What equipment, supplies, and other support he needs for the workload and for the personnel to be employed.

c. How the workload is to be accomplished--what policies will be followed; what priorities apply to categories of work to be done; what objectives are established (how much and when is work to be done).

d. What costs will be incurred, based upon these data, for:

Manpower (labor--administrative and operational).

Supplies and equipment (administrative and operational).

Contracts (utilities--rent, etc.).

Transportation (automotive and other travel).

Maintenance and repair of facilities and equipment.

Construction (if applicable).

These, and the many other items of data that may be required, are prepared in the form of tables (schedules) based upon the agency "Management Structure". This structure of activities (chart of accounts) is nothing more than a descriptive set of functional accounts defining and delineating categories in which data on costs and workloads will be accumulated and reported, goals established, budgets prepared and management reviews made (Section C, Appendix B).

The management system proposed in this study uses the "Program Document" concept to accumulate the data and information, and from these to develop an agency-wide plan of action--assuring coordination among all sub-units. The plan of action then translates into budgetary preparation, giving management a comprehensive view of the total operation and how each part fits into the total mission.

Using the workloads and budgetary data, managers and administrators can "track" progress by element, by function, and overall, with the management structure forming a base to identify specified operations, their progress, and whether activities are coordinated and effective.

The development of reports to management constitutes the Management Information System, a "feedback system" for the management-decision-making process. Reporting systems are designed to evaluate progress, both quantitatively and qualitatively, in terms of the missions, policies, goals and objectives established in the Program Document, and to relate such progress to the expenditure of resources.

Manpower-control and financial accounting and reporting systems also tie into the management structure and provide the administrator with the status of personnel and financial resources.

Using all of these types of data, the manager obtains an across-the-board view of operations. He then is in a position to make valid, sound decisions on problems and to control day-to-day operations. (In fact, one of the benefits of this type of integrated managerial system is that potential problem areas are revealed at early stages so that appropriate corrective actions may be taken before the problems become more serious).

The management decision process then permits considered review of alternative actions, or correction of unfavorable trends. An increasing backlog of waiting cases, for example, may trigger a special study of team case-processing methods. Under-utilization of funds for foster home care, as another example, may indicate the need to apply more manpower to that program to speed up case completions.

Problems requiring a change in management policy may be revealed by reports on the numbers and types of client caseloads. Cost-benefit studies may show that excessive manpower and funds are being expended in non-productive and overly-frequent visitations to foster families, leading to management decisions to reduce the frequency of team visits on that particular type of case. The possibilities become endless--and invaluable for management.

Of importance in this overview is the concept of developing and having available a management system which results in decisions based on a comprehensive, factual review of progress in each activity, its relationship to the whole operation, and to the resources available to do the work expected.

Chapter 9

USING TEAMS TO DELIVER SOCIAL SERVICES

MANPOWER CONSIDERATIONS

MANPOWER UTILIZATION

Various approaches to the proper utilization of social work skills have been attempted. These include (12):*

1. Ranking tasks as to relative complexity. This has proved to be an extremely difficult and hazardous procedure in which an attempt is made to assign "less-complicated" social service tasks to the non-MSW.

2. Separating services into occupational groups involves employing two or more categories of service personnel, each group having its own type of clientele or caseload.

3. Establishing or organizing groups or teams to provide services by a method of task assignment to one or more members of the group. A single team member is not required to do everything for the client, but he would do more than complete an isolated task. The team leader assigns work to members based on their abilities, interests and capabilities. This approach--termed "Episode of Service"--implies that all of the personnel work together toward a common goal or objective.

4. Determining "levels of intervention" is an attempt to provide a system for assigning work based on client needs. Levine developed four levels of complexity of service tasks in descending order of primacy for survival:

   a. Need-provision.

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* For a review of many of these efforts see Barker, Robert L. and Briggs, Thomas L., "Trends in the Utilization of Social Work Personnel: An Evaluative Research of the Literature," (New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1966).

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b. Problem-solving.

c. Conflict-resolution.

d. Systems change.

These levels are conceived as covering the full range of social work activities and become a means for differentiating assignments between MSW and BA social worker levels. The first two levels, need-provision and problem-solving, represent activities that the BA social worker can be taught to perform with reasonable in-service training. Levels "c." and "d." represent more complex activities requiring MSW skills.

The team approach to service delivery utilizing concepts such as "Episode of Service" and "Levels of Intervention," appears to be a most promising solution to effective and economical use of social work manpower.

UTILIZATION PATTERNS

Loewenberg identified five manpower patterns utilized by social welfare agencies, which represent "ideal types" (100:252). In practice various combinations of these types occur.

1. Classical Model: "All direct social work services are provided exclusively by MSW workers."

2. Undifferentiated Model: "Service to clients is provided by both MSW and BA workers."

3. Two-Level Model: "All direct social work services are provided by BA workers, while MSW workers supervise BA workers and devote their time to reviewing and correcting the work of the BA workers."

4. Differential Model: "When cases are differentially assigned, the criteria used usually attempt to direct the more difficult cases to workers with more education (MSW) and the easier ones to workers with less education (BA). The unit of differentiation may be the case, the tasks required for successful intervention, or the service required by the client."

5. Team Model: "In agencies using the team approach to staffing, a group of workers with various educational backgrounds work together as a team, with case assignments going to the total team. The team manager or director, usually the MSW worker, coordinates the use of all manpower required to accomplish the goal for each specific case. In one variant of the team pattern, different team members are responsible for fulfilling the specific goals assigned to them, so that a number of skilled workers may be working with the same family at the same time or over a period of time; each team member will be responsible for achieving the specific goals with this family. In another variant, the team manager assigns specific tasks to various team members who have expertise in the particular area; decisions on outcome goals are made by the total team. In still another variant, every team member functions as coordinator for a given number of cases; the coordinator for the particular case calls on other team members for expert assistance whenever necessary."

Loewenberg developed an analysis of these five manpower utilization patterns which rated, for each pattern, the functional and dysfunctional consequences for those involved in the service delivery system--the providers and recipients. He found that for the individual client, for the potential client, for recruiting and retaining staff, and for providing professional satisfaction to the social worker, the functional consequences of the team model greatly outweighed dysfunctional consequences. In relation to the community and the agency, while somewhat less decisively, the team model nevertheless resulted in functional consequences that outweighed the dysfunctional ones. No other pattern of manpower utilization was as constructive.

USING COMMUNITY MANPOWER

In considering manpower problems, as well as improved communications between agencies and the communities they serve, the potential of using community and indigenous workers as "para-professionals" deserves attention. While some agencies report problems in this area, the experience of others appears to indicate that community workers can provide improved service to clients by facilitating the work of professional social workers and performing tasks (language translation, for example) which the social worker may not be in a position to do. Community workers may have better contacts for improved communications between agency and community. They can assist in identifying local family and community problems; in efforts to resolve these problems; and in better utilization of community resources and institutions (40).

THE SOCIAL SERVICE TEAM CONCEPT

As stated earlier, the need to break away from traditional manpower utilization patterns has spurred exploration of new approaches with greater potential for the improvement of services. In this context, the concept of the social service team is especially appealing because it unites into a single entity a number of social work skills which are used by their possessors jointly and cooperatively toward common goals for their clientele. Those who have studied and experimented with the team model believe that it provides a superior method for the effective deployment of social work personnel and skills, and for increased capacity for better service. The team concept now appears with growing frequency in the literature, along with reported experimentation with this approach (12;13;23;182;132).

STRUCTURAL CONCEPT OF THE TEAM

A team model for foster family care was proposed at a 1966 conference held in Zion, Illinois (23). This model consisted of a team leader with a graduate degree, three social workers with BA degrees, a secretary and a volunteer. Agencies were encouraged to freely adapt this model to their own needs (182).

In experimenting with the model designed at the Zion conference, the Chicago Child Care Society began with a team consisting of a leader with a graduate degree and experience in supervision, two graduate workers with

Chart 9–1

BASIC PRINCIPLES IN USING TEAMS

Team Concept Based on Necessity to :

- PROVIDE FULL RANGE OF SERVICES
- UTILIZE PROFESSIONAL SKILLS TO MAXIMUM
- INCREASE COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION
- IMPROVE EFFECTIVENESS OF SERVICES

experience in the agency, a BA worker new to the agency, and a secretary. As experience was gained, the ratio of BA workers to workers with graduate degrees was increased.

A more recent experiment in use of teams, is that by the Monroe County Department of Social Services, Rochester, New York, during 1969 and 1970. At the end of 1969, there were four teams servicing 839 children in 217 families (132).

The organization of the Monroe County team was based on use of an MSW as team leader, with college graduates as caseworkers, and high school graduates as case aides. In addition, teaching homemakers were utilized, with part-time assistance of foster care and day care workers. Secretaries were included in the teams.

It appears that the number of team members will vary according to requirements and goals of the organization. There may be only two, or as many as ten, members. In most cases where the team approach has been used, there have been between four and eight members on a single team (12).

OPERATIONAL CONCEPT OF THE SOCIAL SERVICE TEAM

How does the team concept differ from the conventional approach to social service delivery? Basically, in the conventional approach, the organization (using child welfare as an example) frequently is divided into various specialized units, such as adoption unit, foster care unit, etc., with cases assigned to individual social workers; and most frequently, with the professional social work responsibilities vested in personnel with MSW degrees.

By contrast, in the team approach, the specialized organizational entities are eliminated, and in their stead is a single service unit consisting of a number of individuals organized into a team. The team concept features a joint, cooperative effort by all staff personnel, taking into account their varying degrees of education, experience and skills, but all working as an integrated unit on the full range of child welfare services. The team, as a group, carries out all of the actions that the case may require.

The team leader has the primary responsibility to assign activities to team members based on client needs and on capabilities of the various team members to fulfill those needs (12).

The basic processes in team service delivery systems are highlighted in Chart 9-2. In the team approach, the client may be served by more than one team member. Each client's social service needs are divided up in such a way that each team member may work at meeting only one or a few of them. The client may experience a face-to-face relationship with only one member of the team, while the other members are engaged in serving him behind the scenes. In other cases, the client may be served directly by several members, each providing a special service within the client's total need. The team provides a fluidity of services which makes the best, collective use of the individual skills, knowledge and experience of all of its members (12).

TEAM/CLIENT RELATIONSHIPS

In considering application of the team concept, perhaps one of the greatest breaks with tradition is in the changed relationship between the social worker and the client. The traditional one-to-one relationship long has been considered by many as one of the prime tools in the social worker's kit. On the other hand, there are those who "hold the one-to-one relationship in less awe, and believe that strict adherence to this pattern of service seriously impairs an agency's capacity to serve the numerous individuals who may need its help" (23:21).

In team practice, the one-to-one relationship is not discarded entirely, but it does entail certain modifications and flexibility in service delivery. The Detroit experience with the team model demonstrated that the changed relationship pattern can work effectively. For the most part, in the team approach, the client's involvement primarily is with one team member, but he may be asked to consult with other team members as necessary. Since most clients do not know what to expect of agency service, they are less concerned about working with more than one person than are the team members (23).

The Monroe County experiment confirms the theory that the danger of weakening the one-to-one relationship need not be a matter of concern. On the contrary, there were significant benefits from the team approach (132).

The team model proposed in this study considers that the practice of assigning cases to a specific team member, who acts as case coordinator, does not violate the one-to-one relationship--rather, it provides an added service to the client by making additional professional assistance more readily available when it is needed.

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Chart 9–2

PROCESSES IN TEAM SERVICE DELIVERY SYSTEMS

STEP 1	INTAKE INTERVIEW	• DEVELOPS BASIC INFORMATION • IDENTIFIES PROBLEM • INDICATES WHO IS TO HANDLE THE CASE
STEP 2	CASE PLAN	• CASEWORKER EVALUATES COURSES OF ACTION • SELECTS MOST APPROPRIATE GOAL • PLANS ACTIONS TO BE TAKEN • CARRIES OUT PLAN OF ACTIONS
STEP 3	TEAM CASE REVIEW	• ADVICE AND ASSISTANCE TO CASEWORKER • PERIODIC REVIEWS TO ASSURE PROGRESS • TEAM LEADER SUPERVISION
STEP 4	FINAL DISPOSITION	• CASEWORKER DECISION WHEN CASE GOAL ACHIEVED • TEAM LEADER APPROVAL • CASE FILE TO INACTIVE RECORDS

In this connection it might be appropriate to indicate that the team model does not preclude the team leader from performing direct service functions. While the team leader's time necessarily is restricted by his supervisory duties, it would seem important that he take an active part in direct service whenever this might be appropriate by reason of the special circumstances of a particular case, and when workload conditions so indicate.

Client intake, as another facet, is covered in more detail in discussion of the team model later in this study.

The role of the team community worker and the consumer member in team/client relationships will also be discussed.

TEAM MODEL DECISION-MAKING

The team model necessarily affects the traditional decision-making process.

In traditional service practice, the social worker typically bears the primary responsibility for casework decisions. Most frequently this is done after consultation with the supervisor, as well as by soliciting the assistance of colleagues. In this setting, the major burden of decision-making rests with the social worker, and normally he is held accountable by his superiors for the decisions he makes.

The team approach, on the other hand, provides a new dimension to the decision-making process. Through regular team case review meetings, all members of the team become involved in considering alternative courses of action.

In team practice, the social worker initially presents his recommendations to the team as to possible courses of action. This is followed by team review, modification or affirmation, with the final decision validated by the team leader. As the team develops into an effective, coordinated unit, decisions become based upon a consensus of collective experience rather than being limited to individual experience or training.

Child welfare services involve decision-making processes of a continuing nature. In the team setting, all members are involved in decision-making. The receptionist, for example, sometimes may have to decide independently whether to refer a client to another agency. Or, as a case progresses, each social worker involved in the case often will have to make independent judgments and decisions as problems arise. Team decision-making does not lessen decision-making responsibility of the individual worker--it serves, rather, to broaden the scope of decision-making.

Developing team decision-making capabilities, however, implies a greater emphasis on criteria for making valid decisions for each case. Team members trained in traditional individual decision-making processes must become adaptable to the give and take of team decision processes in which more varied experience and new points of view must be entertained.

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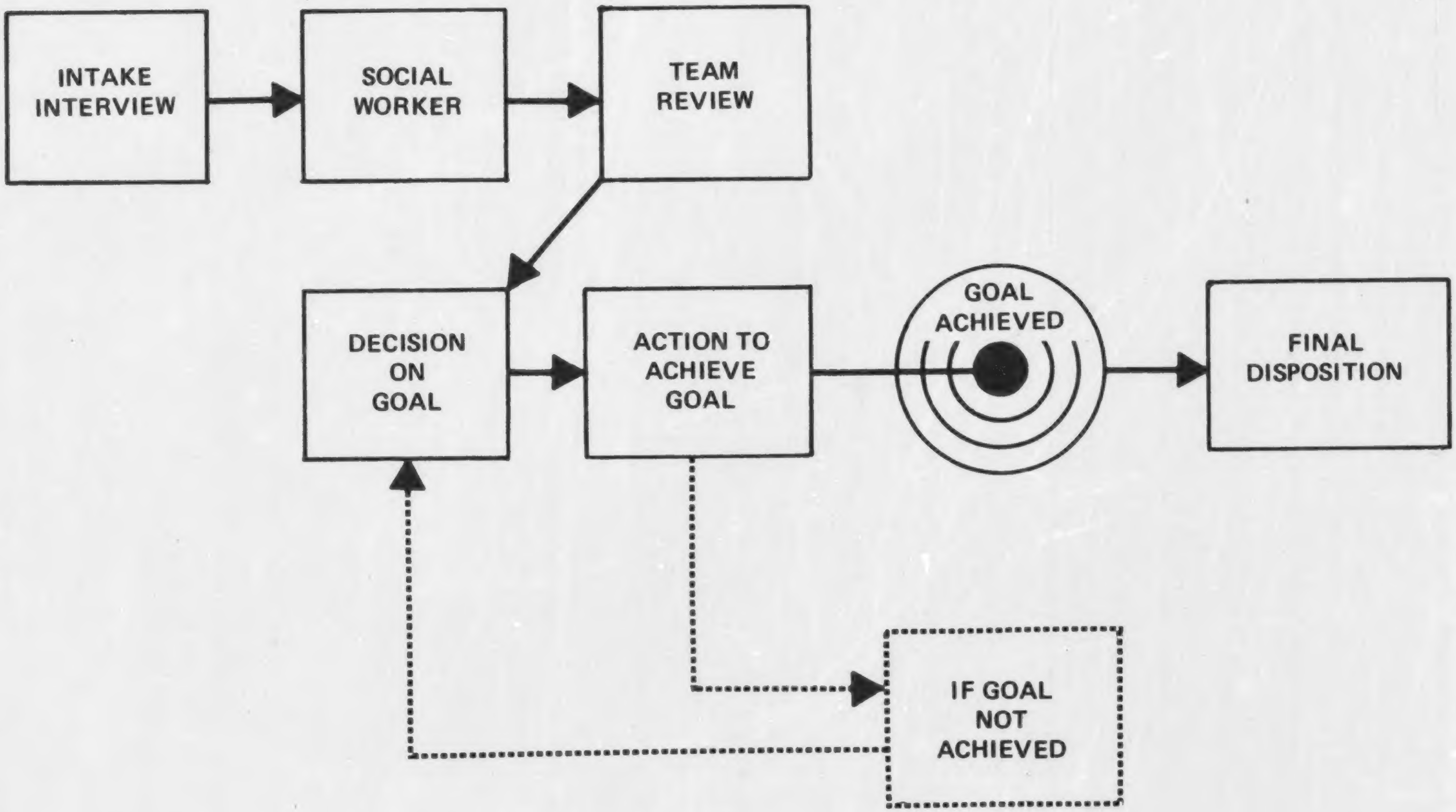
TEAM DECISION-MAKING

Chart 9–3


INTAKE INTERVIEW
SOCIAL WORKER
TEAM REVIEW
DECISION ON GOAL
ACTION TO ACHIEVE GOAL
GOAL ACHIEVED
FINAL DISPOSITION
IF GOAL NOT ACHIEVED

Team decision-making requires even better guidelines than is the case in individual work. Even so, the establishment of criteria for individual decision-making is relatively undeveloped, and agencies using teams for delivering services will find it essential to develop their own criteria and follow-up procedures to assure and maintain the validity of the team decision-making process (125;132).

The advantages of team decision-making over individual decision formulation may be considered a major point in improving services to the client.

Chart 9-3 illustrates how the decision-making process is focused on the team rather than on the individual worker.

THE TEAM MODEL AND THE COMMUNITY

The involvement of the community in social services is as essential, if not more so, in the team setting as in the one-to-one service system. In the team model proposed here a paid community worker is employed as a full time member of the team to assure better communication between the team and the community. This is not the same, however, as assuring that the community and the client have a voice in the provision of service.

In the team service concept there exists a danger that the team may become self-centered and isolated in attempting to provide service based on its own goals and procedures. To maintain a balance of viewpoint, and to avoid developing a bureaucratic organization, the team model proposed envisions the inclusion of consumers in the service process, aside from, and in addition to, the paid community worker member of the team. Consumer members of the team would work in an advisory capacity and would be paid for their services on a _per diem_ basis.

Criteria for use of consumer members should be established to assure that work of the professionals on the team is not diluted by undue community pressures, and so that responsibilities and utilization of consumer personnel are made clear.

The distinction here is that the community worker represents the agency, while the consumer member represents the client. The team, therefore, obtains both a channel of communication with the community as a whole, and with the client from the client's viewpoint.

One additional form of community involvement is the use of advisory committees comprised of representatives from different walks of life. Generally, however, advisory committees relate to the agency level, and the impact of advisory committees on the team concept would be in the form of agency policy and procedural doctrine.*

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* A great deal has been written about advisory committees, pro and con, among which are recommended articles by MacRae (105) and Wohlgemuth (109). The main points are that the advisory committee is an essential means of obtaining community involvement and assistance, which must be provided with a favorable climate within the agency. There must be also a clear statement of purpose and function, the committee structure must be appropriate, there must be clear lines of communication with the agency, and a proper level of agency staff support must be provided.

CASELOAD CAPACITY OF THE TEAM

Regarding workload capacity, there is every indication that a larger caseload can be handled by a team than by the traditional method of assigning cases to individual workers. In its experimentation with the team model, the Chicago Child Care Society found that the team could accommodate a caseload of over twice that normally handled by individual workers in the traditional setting.

A major reason for the team's increased capacity is attributed to "the identification of the various components of a team's total service and the assignment of responsibility to the team member best suited to a particular task" (182:446-54).

TEAM MEETINGS, CASE REVIEWS, AND RECORDING PROCEDURES

An essential aspect of team operations involves periodic meetings of the members of the team to assure that each case is given a considered review. The frequency and duration of such meetings will vary, depending on needs and circumstances. In the case of the Chicago Child Care Society, for example, the teams met twice a week. The members felt that they needed one meeting for case discussion and decision making, and another to focus on the team as a unit and on the development and evaluation of its potential (182).

Team meeting experience in the Monroe County experiment also is of interest in illustrating the need for proper indoctrination and training of social workers to this method of operations and the need for the team leader to control team meeting time and actions (125).

Recording and reporting procedures are of great importance to the proper functioning of the team. In the one-to-one relationship, the social worker usually has full control and responsibility for the content and records of the case file. In the team concept, the case file must be available to and used by each of the team members who might become involved in the service to the particular client. Assuming that the team coordinator for a case is held responsible for the case file, it would appear that no problem should ensue in use of the case file by other members. Of importance, however, would be considerations for control of the file and records by the coordinator, and provision for use and reference to the file by other members. Some revisions and additions to case file reporting and recording forms undoubtedly would be required.

Recording procedures under the team operation necessarily are different from the practice involving the individual social worker in the traditional setting. Although close monitorship of recording and reporting systems is a normal management practice, the need for this is intensified in the team setting because of the different workers who may be involved in and reporting on a single case. It was necessary for the Chicago Child Care Society to devise a new system of recording when it adopted the team approach. At that agency, initial interviews were dictated in summary process. Once the goals were decided, periodic recordings were required on all ongoing cases. These summaries were prepared according to a standard outline.

The team, for example, devised a report form upon which every client contact could be noted by whatever team member was contacted. The format provided spaces for the client's name and date of contact, and the team member's notes on actions taken. These contact reports were placed into the client's file in chronological order so that the next user had the full story in one place (23). (Section E.3e, Appendix B).

ASSESSMENTS OF THE TEAM APPROACH

It is important to review the evaluative conclusions reached by some of the agencies which have pioneered in the use of social work teams. Although the experience of each varies somewhat, collectively they reflect the kinds of results--benefits or problems--that may be expected by the agency deciding to move into this new service delivery concept.

1. The Chicago Child Care Society concluded after a preliminary assessment that the team model "is viable, and, indeed, can enrich the program of an agency. There are indications that a team can maintain service up to agency standards utilizing less highly trained staff. Further, the capacity of the team in numbers of clients served seems greater than a total of the individual worker's loads would be" (182:454).

Other advantages noted by the Chicago agency were the fluidity of approach, and the wide range of perception that the team affords and the increased support for conceptualization.

The evaluation pointed up two unresolved areas: first, the need to work out decisions about career lines open to team members; and secondly, the need to develop an agency program to encourage individual professional growth for team members.

2. Another assessment of the use of teams has been made by the Family and Children's Service of Victoria, British Columbia, which for over five years has been involved in the development and use of the neighborhood team as the major vehicle for delivery of family counseling and child protection services. The agency and staff "are convinced of the value of team practice, primarily because of benefits to staff working within the team, and because of evident benefit to the neighborhood communities served by the teams" (192: 465).

3. The favorable experience at Catholic Social Services of Wayne County in Detroit, Michigan, involved a three-year-long research and demonstration project on the differential use of manpower in foster care, using the team model (23). Before launching the demonstration project, the Detroit agency undertook an intensive examination of the existing staff structure and work methods. Early benefits accrued from this effort in the form of "implementation of many of the ideas that had been voiced by the staff for years, and the introduction of many new work-simplification measures which made the agency's operations more efficient."

The demonstration showed that original concern about "overly heavy caseloads" did not stand up in the face of the new team approach--an indication, again, that the team can handle a greater caseload than under the traditional one-to-one worker/client relationship.

In that experiment, under team coverage, "parents were reached predominantly by one team member, while the regular visits to boarding homes were made by other members. Team backup for so-called emergencies actually reduced their occurrence. The introduction of the unit secretary, the adoption of work-simplification measures, the more extensive involvement of foster parents, and improved case planning and management procedures with concomitant case movement, made it possible to reduce the number of teams involved in the experimental stage from four (as originally planned) to three" (23:44).

An additional benefit is the manner in which the team approach can improve the general knowledge and skills of the individual social worker. This is exemplified by the Detroit agency's experience with respect to legal aspects of service. Under the old system the court liaison worker handled all court appearances. Much time was used for communications between the social worker, the liaison person, and the casework director. However, when the social worker represented his own cases in court, less time was used, and clients received better service.

4. The Monroe County experiment (132) also is of considerable interest in its comparison of theoretical considerations in establishing teams with actual experiences in practice. While mentioning a number of difficulties and drawbacks in the utilization of teams in this experiment, there is little doubt of the benefits and improvement in services which accrued from team service. The difficulties listed were those resulting primarily from lack of training and experience in the concept. The recommendations to resolve the difficulties encountered reinforce the implications that team service was, in fact, a superior method of service to clients and enhanced professionalism.

5. According to the Detroit report, experiences of use and assignment of a secretary as a key member of the team were most favorable.

Although the Monroe County experiment reported some difficulties in use of secretaries as members of their teams, their recommendation (132) was that "Maximum use of secretaries should be made; they should be fully integrated into the team". (Their report indicates possible under-utilization of this position by confining duties to clerical levels).

6. Barker and Briggs have identified the most commonly raised objections and questions concerning the use of the social work team (12).

"If teams are so good, why haven't social workers used them in the past?" This question is invalid in the light of long-standing use of teams such as in psychiatric/social service delivery. The team concept may be unfamiliar to many social workers, but it has been used and has proved effective.

Teams supposedly take the social worker away from direct contact with clients. This attitude represents the view of the social worker who is trained traditionally for face-to-face work and who might be attracted to social work on that basis. It ignores the needs of the client whose problems might be solved best by team work rather than by one-to-one service.

The team approach will result in greater fragmentation of services. On the contrary, the team provides varied skills and closes gaps which occur in individual skills and abilities in a one-to-one relationship.

Time is wasted because team members must spend time in communicating with other team members instead of in direct contact with clients. This is invalid since it has been found that, in point of fact, individual workers already spend great amounts of time in necessary consultation and communication with each other.

Team organization may lead to personal conflicts among team members. The team structure would not create personal conflicts to any extent greater than already is evident in individual assignments.

Teams would result in limited effectiveness in large caseloads and areas. Actually, the size of caseload did not affect team effectiveness as much as it did in the individual approach. Team service delivery is more efficient because of the greater specialization, offered in a broader context, that the team affords.

The treatment relationship between the worker and his client is diminished. It is questionable that the one-to-one treatment relationship is essential in every case. The many services that are required suggest that clients might be just as comfortable dealing with several workers within their fields of competency as with one individual. If the one-to-one relationship is essential in some cases, the team concept does not preclude it.

Use of the team requires the use of people without a Masters Degree. But acceptance of the use of non-MSWs in social services is becoming more widespread, and the team concept does not introduce any greater non-professionalism than already exists--it does provide for more effective use of professional skills.

Barker and Briggs go on to list the major advantages in the use of the team concept. These can be summarized briefly as:

1. Making better and more effective use of professional skill by channeling skills toward client needs.

2. Avoiding over-utilization of non-MSW skills in areas exceeding individual competence.

3. Expanding the range of services which can be provided through pooling of skills on the team.

4. Improving the quality of services through pooling of broader training and skills available in the team organization, and possibilities for specialization of services.

5. The team approach focuses services on the goals of the organization rather than on the processes followed by the individual worker. The client obtains better service with a group of individuals all working for his benefit toward a common goal.

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6. The team structure provides a greater career incentive plan, particularly for those without full professional training. It provides a means for the non-MSW to broaden his training and usefulness, while permitting the better skilled MSW to better utilize his training.

7. The team structure improves the level of professionalism of service to the client by making available a full range of professional skills.

In view of the successful experiences with the team model, it seems clear to the authors that this approach deserves full consideration by agencies desiring to leave no stone unturned in the effort to improve the delivery of services. It has been demonstrated that there is no agency or setting where it could not work. The impetus for realizing the potential of the team model can come about only from an open-minded attitude, initiative, and willingness to break with tradition, on the part of the social work administrator.

THE CHILD WELFARE TEAM MODEL

VARIANTS OF THE TEAM PATTERN

Regardless of the many possible varying operational patterns, the team concept involves organizing into a single unit a group of workers with differing educational and skill backgrounds. The individuals work together under a team leader who coordinates their efforts to accomplish the goals for each specific case.

Various team patterns may be employed (100):

In one pattern, specific case goals are assigned to different team members. Thus, a number of skilled workers may be working with the same client at the same time or over a period of time. Each team member is responsible for achieving a specified goal for the client.

In another variant, the team leader assigns specific tasks to various team members who have expertise in the particular area. Decisions on outcome goals are made by the total team.

In still another variant, every team member functions as coordinator for a given number of cases; the coordinator for the particular case calls on other team members for expert assistance whenever necessary.

Of the three basic team patterns described above, the third is considered the most practicable for the child welfare team model proposed in this paper. This team model would operate within the following framework:

The team leader identifies the special areas of expertise and skills possessed by individual team members. Each team member is available, on call by other team members, to provide expert advice and assistance in his designated skill area on particular cases and problems.

Cases are assigned to the team, with the team leader, as indicated below, designating which member is to be the "case coordinator".

The team member to whom the case is assigned has the primary responsibility to act as coordinator for the case, and for contacts with the families or child and other agencies involved. Only after clearing with the case coordinator, do other team members make such contacts.

Diagnosis and decisions on outcome goals are made through case reviews by the entire team, under the guidance of the team leader.

The case coordinator is responsible for calling upon other team members or outside agencies for expert advice and case support, as determined by review of the case in team meetings, and as special problems arise.

TEAM MODEL STAFFING

The proposed child welfare team model consists of a team leader, a varying number of social workers, a community worker, a secretary and a consumer member. (The positions indicated below represent a suggested pattern for illustrative purposes).

Team Leader (MSW or BA in social work)

Social Workers (MSW and BA in social work)

Community Worker (Degree not required)

Consumer Member (Degree not required)

Secretary (Degree not required)

The exact composition and the number of workers on a team will vary, and what each member does must be determined in specific organizations and programs where teams are used. As Barker and Briggs point out, "a vital social work team will always be flexible and at times will have services to perform, and jobs to do that are not recurring events in the team routine. It should therefore be structured with such flexibility that other specialists and professionals can be called upon on an ad-hoc basis to form an integral, although temporary, membership with the team." (12:23)

As an example, one agency leaned towards inclusion of a health specialist within the team. This was prompted by evidence of poor coordination between the health and the social service staffs and question as to whether children were obtaining appropriate health services. A similar circumstance could, of course, arise with respect to educational, protective, or other specialized needs.

It is the opinion of the authors, that so far as staffing of the child welfare team model is concerned, only child welfare personnel need be included as permanent members. Educational, medical and other specialists, however, may be invited to participate in cases whenever needed, as consultants.

In those instances where responsibility for auxiliary programs such as health or education are vested in other departments, it might be necessary to work out formal consultant arrangements for the child welfare teams with them.

In this model, it is assumed that the eligibility worker, when applicable in a given case, is a central agency office member and is not within the Child Welfare Division organization. The team case coordinator is reponsible to coordinate actions with the eligibility worker as needed.

With regard to career development and training in this team model concept, it is intended that there be one professional career pattern or line of promotional development, regardless of degree status. Thus, the BA social worker would be given full consideration for promotion to team leader and higher agency offices based on demonstrated ability and experience rather than degree status.

Also, the team model concept considers that professional team members are specialists in the field of family and children's services. They may, of course, develop into specialists in specific functional areas within this field according to their particular interests and capabilities, and as may result from organizational requirements.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF TEAM MEMBERS

The Team Leader (23). The team leader normally would be the member with the highest levels of capability, experience, and skill. (He need not necessarily have an MSW degree). He is responsible for basic knowledge of all cases assigned to the team and for the professional service functions. He may delegate responsibility for certain functions to other team members, depending upon their individual experience and skills. The team leader's special contribution is that of resource person, organizer, administrator, coordinator and motivator.

Much of the team leader's time and effort will be devoted to goal determination, and ensuring optimum use of each team member. The goals for each case, immediate and long-range, must be formulated, and responsibilities among team members delineated.

The team leader is administratively accountable for those under his supervision, and for the decisions of the team. Since the team is considered the unit of service, the leader's special responsibility is to provide guidance to the group to develop its full capacity to function as a team. He is an integral part of the unit, participates in team decision-making and, when appropriate, provides direct service to clients.

Clear designations of duties and responsibilities are essential if smooth team operation and quality service to the client are to be achieved. Basic responsibilities of the team members are discussed below.

The Social Worker Member. The major burden of direct services to clients is carried by the social worker members of the team. Social worker members may hold either an MSW or a BA in social work degree.

As already noted, each social worker is expected to be a generalist in the field of child welfare and family services. Although some individual members may be more knowledgeable in a particular area (e.g. adoption or foster care) than other team members, all of them must possess a good background in all areas of family and child welfare services.

The social worker (professional) members of the team function in two ways: they carry coordination responsibility for the specific cases assigned to them; and they perform supportive tasks for cases coordinated by (assigned to) other team members.

The Community Worker. The proposed child welfare team model is designed to include, as a paid employee, an individual knowledgeable of the local community, to participate in the daily work of the team. The community worker acts as a "paraprofessional" specialist on the team. He need not have a professional social work background, but he must possess enough specialized experience or training to permit him to relate team efforts to the community in which the team operates.

In the child welfare team model, cases normally would not be assigned to the community worker for coordinating responsibility. The community worker, however, would participate in on-going direct services--taking part in the reviews and presentations of cases, advising and assisting in communicating with clients, helping to ascertain whether the case objectives are being reached, and providing advice and assistance to the case coordinators on aspects of community interactions.*

The community worker in most situations would be responsible for recruitment and guidance of the consumer member of the team, and he would participate in developing community-oriented programs such as foster-home and adoptive family recruitment.

The Consumer Member. The inclusion of the consumer member, to participate in team service in a quasi-official capacity, is based upon the vital need to involve the community in the daily, direct team service to its clientele. The consumer member is an individual who has been (or still is) a recipient of social services. He works directly with the team members, participates in team decision-making, and is responsible for advice and assistance that make explicit client interests and aspirations. He might be a natural, foster or adoptive parent, a representative of a consumer organization (such as the local branch of the Foster Parents Association or of the local Welfare Rights Organization), or a former foster child, or an adult who was an adopted child, or a former consumer who is a member of some non-social-service oriented organization (Women's Liberation, for example) which, the team believes, might help in developing needed resources, etc. A consumer member would not serve on a full-time, continuing basis; rather, he would be called in periodically, when his special involvement was important. This means that over a period of time, a sizable number of consumers, representing hopefully, a full range of consumer interests, would contribute to the work of the team.

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* The community worker might be especially helpful in providing direct assistance to clients with housing problems, transportation, translation, home and money management, comparative shopping, budgeting, education, employment, social and recreational activities, and obtaining household and child care.

The Team Secretary. In addition to the traditional clerical functions, the individual occupying this position may act in limited fashion as a social worker as well. For example, the secretary provides information to clients about appropriate procedures, works directly with clients in helping them fill out forms, contacts clients by telephone and obtains need information requested by other team members, etc. Supportive activity of this type frees the professional and other team members of time-consuming routine matters, and permits them to devote their energies to the necessary professional aspects of the case. To assure full integration as a member of the team, the secretary attends team meetings and participates in training programs.

TEAM MODEL SERVICE DELIVERY

The organization, development and utilization of the team demand careful consideration as to the management of team workloads and effective use of team member time and skills (23;12).

The concept of this study envisions the professional portion of the team as being composed of members, each capable of being assigned (as team coordinator) any type of case in the spectrum.

With the development of a management structure built upon functional work areas,* a number of possibilities are indicated. To make effective use of the time and skills of team members, certain alternatives appear in the team delivery concept which must be weighed in determining how best to utilize the team:

The first consideration is to determine how the client actually enters into the picture. Someone must interview him, determine his eligibility for service, initiate necessary records, determine what kind of assistance is needed, and refer him to the team. This may start at the central agency level or at the team level, depending upon where the client first appears or is referred.

When the client is assigned to the team, what specific member or members become involved? How does the team leader decide which member to utilize? Does he make assignments on the basis of team educational level? By workload, or availability of members? By type of case?

When a team member is selected as "case coordinator", how far should he personally go in providing different services? When does he call upon other members of the team, or contact other agencies?

It is essential, therefore, that the team have a formal plan of operation which all members understand, and in which definite responsibilities and parameters of action are clearly defined.

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* Section C, Appendix B.

To illustrate the development of a practical plan of action to assure effective conduct of day-to-day team activities, the following team service pattern is suggested:

Preliminary Actions

There must be designated a specific point of entry at which the client appears. He may contact either a local team office, or make his first appearance at a central county agency office.

The immediate actions are to determine:

1. What type of service or assistance does this client need?

2. Is the client eligible for the needed services at this particular agency?

3. Which segment of the organization is equipped to provide the particular service needed?

4. If the client needs services of another agency, how is he to be referred?

For the purpose of illustration, let us assume that the client reports first to an initial interview and eligibility center at the agency central office and then is referred to the team location. (In practice, it can be expected that clients may make their first contact at either level.)

The client's first team contact would be with the team secretary who would initiate the necessary files and documents. Following the administrative actions, the initial interview at the team level can be with the team leader, or a designated team-member assigned as team intake-interviewer, who obtains a preliminary overview of the case and then determines the type of assistance needed and to which member of the team the case should be assigned. (The team intake-interviewer is visualized as being one of the team members assigned this task on a rotating or scheduled basis. He would perform this duty in addition to his normal duties.)

The Team in Action

To illustrate the pattern for team service, Chart 9-4 assumes a team organization made up of:

A. Team Leader

B. Deputy Team Leader--Social Worker

C. Social Worker

D. Social Worker

E. Social Worker

F. Community Worker

G. Consumer Member

H. Team Secretary

Chart 9–1

PATTERN For CHILD WELFARE TEAM SERVICE

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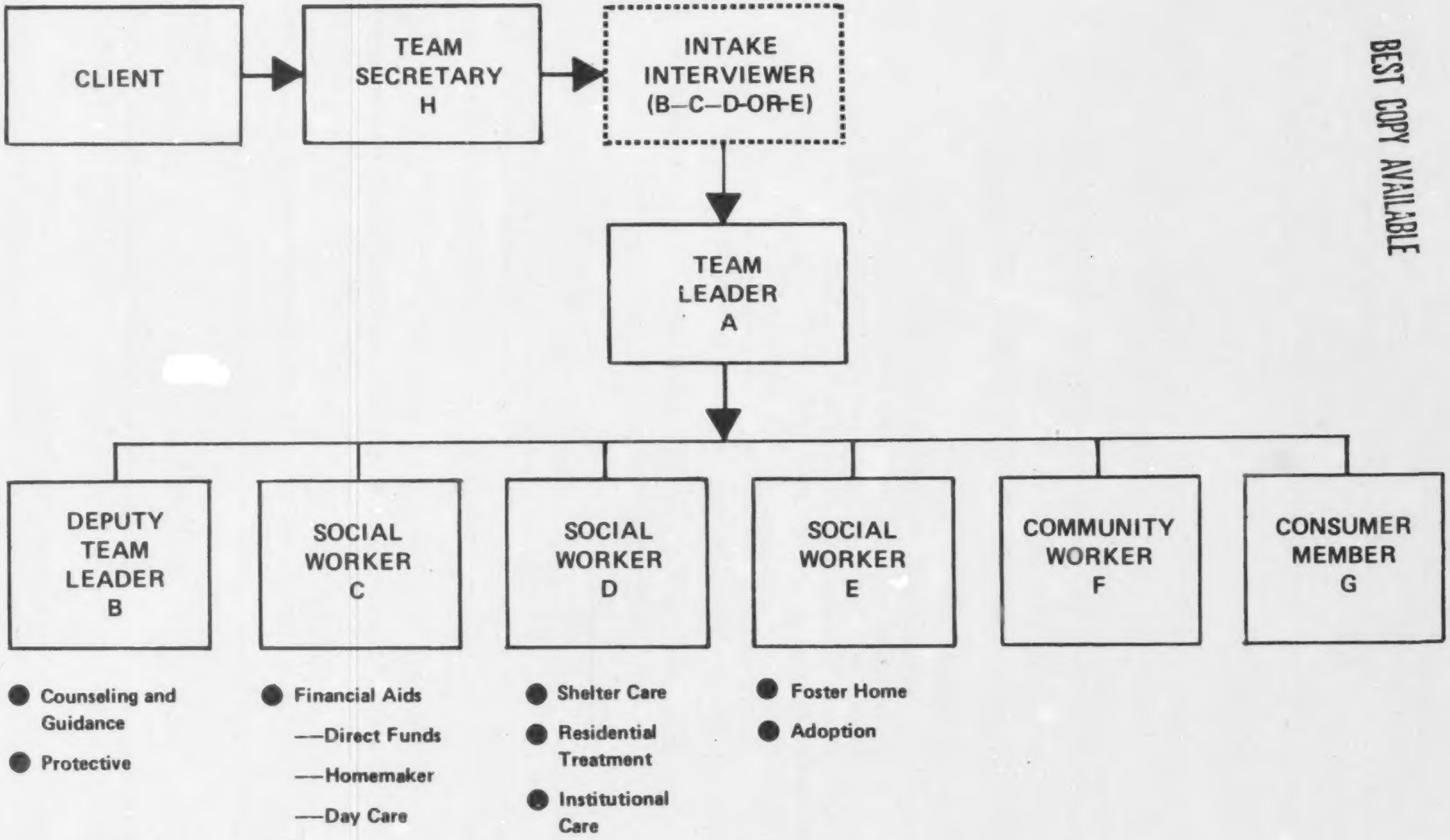
CLIENT
TEAM SECRETARY H
INTAKE INTERVIEWER (B–C–D-OR-E)
TEAM LEADER A
DEPUTY TEAM LEADER B
SOCIAL WORKER C
SOCIAL WORKER D
SOCIAL WORKER E
COMMUNITY WORKER F
CONSUMER MEMBER G
● Counseling and Guidance
● Protective
● Financial Aids
—Direct Funds
—Homemaker
—Day Care
● Shelter Care
● Residential Treatment
● Institutional Care
● Foster Home
● Adoption

NOTES: 1. *See Management Structure at Appendix B for description of functional services.*

2. *For illustrative purposes, this model includes the system of providing direct financial assistance, recognizing that legislative changes may transfer some of these functions elsewhere.*

As previously indicated, the consumer member would assist the team wherever his services might be indicated, including attendance at initial intake interview or at any other point in service delivery. This position is paid on a per diem basis; all the others are paid employee staff members.

The designation of one of the more experienced social workers as deputy team leader provides a chain of command for responsibility during absences of the team leader.

Using the basic management structure as a base describing the functions of the child welfare team,* the various members of the team are assigned to handle certain functional areas.

Following is an explanation of the team service pattern illustrated in Chart 9-4:

1. The team leader is responsible for overall control and supervision. He either interviews the new client before assignment or is briefed on the case by the team intake-interviewer, and determines the major area of need and which team member shall act as case coodinator.

2. The team secretary assists the team leader and members as a central resource. The team secretary normally is involved in the initial client interview and establishes the case file and other required documents.

3. The community worker acts in a central resource capacity. He also may participate in the initial interview, if his services are required.

4. The consumer member, also, is available for advice and assistance as needed.

5. Team Member B, as an example, might be assigned to certain functional areas most suitable for utilization of his education, background and skills--such as counseling, guidance and protective services.

6. The functional area of furnishing direct financial aid, including provision of homemaker services and day care services might be assigned to social worker C (pending current legislative actions to transfer the income maintenance function out of the public welfare network.)

7. Social worker D might be assigned the functional areas of shelter care, residential treatment and institutional care.

8. Social worker E might attend primarily to the functions of foster home care and adoption services.

The benefits of this type of team model plan of action are that:

The team leader obtains an initial background on every case referred to the team. He is in better position to supervise service actions and to assure effective use of the time and skills of members of the team, as work

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*Section C, Appendix B.

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on the case progresses.

The team leader is enabled to assign each new case to a social worker skilled in the specific functional area of need.

Each team member makes most effective use of his time and skills by being able to concentrate his efforts in a limited group of functional areas at one time, rather than having his time fragmented in handling all types of cases at one time.

By rotation of team members to different functional area assignments, each member may be trained specifically in each and every area of team service, with the advantage of improving his own professional background and for most effective service to the client.

The team leader, secretary, community worker and consumer member are not assigned, normally, as case coordinators. Their time and efforts can be concentrated wherever and whenever needed by the case-coordinator team members.

Liaison and coordination with other outside agencies, such as eligibility worker, medical, legal and other community agencies is simplified by channeling work along functional areas.

By using functional area team assignments, the team leader may control workloads by type of case and quantity. If services for foster home care, for example, demand increased manpower, he may effect internal reassignments easily, or may add new members to the team to support the specific increased workload.

Team review and handling of each case is enhanced by having specific areas of expertise available and definable. Thus, for example, social worker B, handling a protective service case, might look specifically to social worker D for advice or assistance in placing the child in a proper shelter, residential, or institutional environment as needed. Or if foster home services are indicated, he would be able to work directly with social worker E in effecting such a placement. The consumer member and community worker may work with each and every client at any point in the service delivery pattern, as may be requested by the case coordinator.

Also advantageous from an administrative standpoint is the ability to relate the functional area team activities to managerial supervision, planning, programming and budgeting in the program-budget type of management concept proposed.

CLIENT REFERRAL SYSTEMS

With regard to team intake processing and procedures, the team model is flexible and geared to accept clients from any source or portal.

Under the decentralization concept it is expected that the majority of clients would make their first contact with the agency at the local team level. As mentioned earlier, however, it can be expected that some clients will have contacted other agencies first or the county level central office prior to being referred to the local team for action.

Some organizations such as the San Francisco Information and Referral Council have initiated actions to establish a central county-wide "Information and Referral System" by which each client in any social service agency can be referred promptly and effectively to any other agency for appropriate assistance (99). (Team actions to receive and provide data for a central data bank on client referrals under such a centralized system should be borne in mind as a possible added administrative requirement.)

THE MANAGEMENT PROCESSES

In this and the previous chapter, we have considered the design of a model for a child welfare organization and its management, and the concept of the team model and how it operates. To complete the consideration of the model, it is useful to examine in some depth the various management processes mentioned earlier and their application in the social welfare agency setting. This is done in Appendix B.

Chapter 10

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

OBJECTIVES

This is a report of a three-year demonstration and research Project which addressed itself to three objectives:

1. To explore the need for planned, long-term foster family care for minority children as one of the services to be made available by a multiple child welfare servi[illegible] program in a public agency.

2. To assess the readiness of seniors majoring in an undergraduate social work curriculum to provide direct child welfare services, given certain training conditions and educational requirements.

3. To design a model for a child welfare services delivery system in a public agency that will make multiple high-quality child welfare services available and accessible to children in need of them.

These objectives stem from some of the most urgent concerns prevalent in the field of child welfare at the present time.

Foster family care continues to be the largest single child welfare program for children living outside their own homes. While initially conceptualized as a temporary service for children who either would be returned to their own homes or placed in adoption--considered by social workers as optimum goals following foster placement--a range of studies has shown that a large proportion of children remains in foster care for many years. The uncertain nature of unplanned long-term foster care often tends to create a limbo for both foster parents and children. The child remaining throughout his minority in a "temporary" situation reflects one of the major unresolved problems in the child welfare field. In this dilemma, planned long-term foster family care may constitute a realistic and constructive alternative for a large percentage of foster children and their families.

The specific focus in this Project was to address the need of ethnic minority children for planned long-term foster family care. This was done because prior research and practice had indicated that minority children experience a greater lack of suitable opportunities for adoption or return to their own families. Since the bulk of foster family care is provided or subsidized by public agencies, two such agencies were chosen as the setting for the Project.

Recent developments in undergraduate social work education, pointing up the need to explore the capacity of the social worker with a bachelor's degree to deliver direct social services, stimulated the second objective. In 1970-73, the Council on Social Work Education established standards for BA social work curricula which stipulated that students should complete 300-400 hours of field experience with direct engagement in service activities as an integral part of their study program. In effect, this places the responsibility for teaching and training the first level of professional social work practitioners on undergraduate social work education.

Much remains to be learned, however, about the tasks that holders of baccalaureate degrees can perform successfully, the level of practice skills they can attain, and the educational and training conditions which can enhance social service delivery. This Project was designed to assess the capacity of undergraduate social work majors to function effectively as professionals in child welfare.

The students who participated in the Project--more than half of them of minority backgrounds--were recruited from the pool of social work majors enrolled at California State University, San Francisco. This university has maintained a program of undergraduate social work education since the 1930s. It was approved by the Council on Social Work Education immediately after the Council's 1970 standards went into effect.

The third objective of the Project was induced by the fact that in recent years massive dissatisfaction with delivery systems of human service agencies has been gaining momentum. There is concern that some agencies hinder, rather than facilitate, the provision of quality services, and that they inhibit the proper functioning of their professional staffs. While there has been considerable discussion around revamping the organization and structure of public social services, a model for an optimum service delivery system in child welfare was found to be lacking. The Project addressed itself to this absence by employing the services of management consultants familiar with the operations of large public agencies. Together with the Project's social service staff, they designed a model for improved, effective service delivery in child welfare.

In summary, the three Project objectives focus on a major problem area in child welfare; on the role of BA social workers in the provision of direct child welfare services; and on the creation of a child welfare services delivery system that utilizes modern management techniques. The special feature of this undertaking may well be the attempt to integrate services, staffing, and delivery system into a dynamic whole better able to provide quality social services to children and families who need them.

THE STUDY PLAN

This study was conducted in San Mateo County, one of the larger suburban counties in California, located immeditately south of San Francisco. In education and income, this county ranks second in the state. At the same time, the proportion of its minority group population is not appreciably lower than that found in California as a whole.

Included in Project activities was an exhaustive survey of the literature on long-term foster family care. This material was augmented by visits to eleven voluntary and public agencies engaged in offering such care in six states. While it is not possible to say to what extent the practices of these agencies are representative of the total volume of long-term foster family care available to children in this country, the survey of the literature suggests that they are indeed substantially representative. Further insight into the foster care system was gained by attendance at the first three National Conferences of the Foster Parents Association, in 1971, 1972, and 1973.

Shortly after the inception of the Project in September 1970, contact with the two cooperating public agencies, the San Mateo County Department of Public Health and Welfare and the San Mateo Probation Department, revealed that these agencies did not possess current background data on foster children in their care. Without this information, it would be almost impossible to generalize, from the findings on the small group of children served by the Project, the needs of foster children in general. Consequently, a survey of all children in foster care in the county was undertaken. This task was carried out by students in the Project and was completed in February 1972. In addition to the background information, the findings pointed up emerging trends.

For the 49 foster children served directly in this Project, detailed research schedules were prepared to allow for systematic information gathering about them and their parents. Students in the Project used these schedules, and others which were developed subsequently, to summarize what they had learned in the process of serving Project families.

In relation to the professional evolution of the BA social worker, the pertinent literature was reviewed. It showed a steady increase in the capacity attributed to baccalaureate degree holders for providing professional social work services. An empirical test of the relative attainments of BA and MSW social workers was provided by an analysis of the respective knowledge, attitudes, and practice skills of the two groups. This was carried out by means of a number of well known tests administered to both undergraduate and graduate students.

Assessment of readiness for professional practice of Project students involved several procedures:

1. A content analysis of student materials concerning their case activities, submitted on a weekly basis, was made by two independent readers. This was done in order to find out to what extent these activities could be identified and classified in relation to processes important in child welfare services;

2. Diagnostic summaries of their service cases, prepared by students at the end of the field work year, were used as the basis for assessing skill level in providing direct services. Ratings were prepared independently by an outside judge and the Project's student supervisor, using five criteria: (a) compassionate view of the problem, (b) understanding the purpose of visits or other contacts, (c) sensitivity to defensive reactions, (d) objectivity--empathy, and (e) helping ability;

3. The final, overall evaluation of student readiness for professional practice was arrived at by applying five criteria to overall student performance. These focused on ability to collect and organize information, to interpret information, to communicate effectively in oral and written form, to provide direct client services with some degree of skill, and to establish and maintain constructive working relationships with others (not clients) in the social services network. Ratings on the criteria were combined to produce the final judgment.

To develop a new delivery model for child welfare services, the relevant professional literature in child welfare, social work, related social sciences, business administration, and management were reviewed by social work and management specialists affiliated with the Project. The management specialists analyzed the organizational structure of various public welfare agencies, their patterns of manpower needs and of personnel deployment. This was followed by specifications of the major current issues in child welfare service delivery--issues addressed by the proposed model. This model includes guidelines for making services available to clients without delay, for reducing duplication, and for creating a work environment conducive to continuity of services. The presentation also points up the utility of such concepts as the team approach in deploying personnel, decentralization of services, on-going involvement of consumers in the provision of services, and improved management procedures.

FINDINGS

FINDINGS IN REGARD TO THE FIRST OBJECTIVE

The findings trace and analyze the past and present developments in foster family care in the United States; describe the characteristics and problems of San Mateo County children in foster family care; compare the Project's sample of foster children with all San Mateo County foster children; and indicate the proportion of foster children now in placement who are likely to need foster care on a long-term basis.

Foster Family Care in the United States

In the early 20th century, the professionally approved social work philosophy concerning foster family care saw it as a temporary expedient which neither could nor should replace the value for a child of being brought up in his own or in an adoptive family. Primarily because it provided a family atmosphere, foster family care came to be used much more frequently than placement in institutions. As time went on, however, it became clear that for a growing number of children, foster family care was losing its temporary character; rather, it was turning into an arrangement that lasted

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throughout their minority, by default rather than by plan. Especially prominent among these children in limbo were the older, the non-white, and the physically, mentally and emotionally handicapped. Many of them never returned to or acquired a permanent home of their own.

Despite the persistent importance of the limbo issue (mainly because of the spreading resort to long-term care among large public welfare departments), the response to it by child welfare agencies and practitioners has not been direct nor consistent. Many continued to leave children in long-term care, while voicing their reluctance to accept it as a genuinely good solution for them. In the 1960s, there emerged a greater willingness among professionals to consider the constructive potential of *planned* long-term foster family care. Yet, the implementation of this concept remained, on the whole, hesitant and scattered.

Visits by Project staff members to selected child welfare agencies made it possible to gain some notion about the status of long-term foster family care in the 1970s. It was found that widespread agreement exists that leaving children in limbo constitutes a policy of drift which is often seriously damaging because it ignores the vital importance of early planning and decision-making in each child's best interests. The failure to make early, realistic plans, while the agency engages in fruitless search for adoptive parents, results in the child outliving his welcome in a temporary foster home. The foster parents remain detached since their assumption is that the child will leave shortly. This often becomes a frustrating and destructive experience for all involved.

It was learned further that long-term foster family care can be a constructive alternative for some children, *if* it is provided in a purposeful manner and *if* decisions concerning it are made within a reasonable period of time and in relation to thoroughly considered alternatives. Offered in this way, this type of care reduces anxiety among parents and children alike and frees them to provide satisfying and nurturing relationships with each other.

Irrespective of which region was visited, the proportion of minority children requiring long-term care was found to be high. Nor did assessments by administrators and staff indicate that this requirement will decrease substantially in the foreseeable future. In their view, the trend in the past decade of increases both in the number of agencies providing long-term foster family care, and in the number of children requiring this service, would not be reversed in the 1970s, although in some instances it might reach a plateau.

At the same time, it appeared to Project investigators that a number of agencies have failed to incorporate into long-term foster family care the two elements that are crucial for its success in serving children: *early planning* and *prompt but sound decision-making*. It is probably safe to assume that this failure stems to an important extent from inadequate financing and staff, the latter both in quantity and quality. But equally conducive to failure seem to be ambivalence in philosophy about the potential of this type of care in benefiting certain children, unexplicated differences in practice concepts, and lack of research to show how well or poorly long-term foster family care does in fact serve children and parents. It is also possible that the reluctance of many child welfare workers to commit themselves to a plan early is supported by administrative failure to build into the system devices to facilitate closures. Perhaps in addition some delays are caused by the improper use of such agency resources as supervision, peer discussions, and psychiatric and other consultation: they may be used as devices in order not to have to make a decision.

The huge cumulative costs generated by delays in decision-making were revealed by a New York study in 1971, causing considerable public concern. Added to this has been increasing dissatisfaction of foster parents with the lack of clarity surrounding their roles. Organizing themselves into local and national associations, they have promulgated a Bill of Rights for Foster Parents--as well as for foster children--one of whose propositions asks that they be considered as possible permanent parents for the child who, after being in their home for some time, becomes free for adoption or permanent foster family care. This "right" was incorporated, in 1971, into New York's 24-month review law, designed to convert long-term foster family care into adoption, largely through subsidizing foster parents. To what extent the new law will succeed in accomplishing this goal is not yet clear.

San Mateo County Children in Foster Family Care

A sample survey of foster care in California was recently carried out by the (California) State Social Welfare Board. However, the survey did not include San Mateo County, and since the cooperating agencies did not have adequate statistical data on children in their care, a massive survey of all children in foster care was undertaken by the Project staff and students. This undertaking not only provided valuable information not hitherto available, but it also constituted an excellent learning opportunity for students in the technical and practical implications of research for practice.

Survey data were obtained from all district offices of the Department of Public Health and Welfare and from the two divisions of the Probation Department--Watoto and Hillcrest. While detailed findings were tabulated for each district office of both departments, the following points relate to some of the most significant overall highlights.

1. The Project found that at the beginning of 1971 there were 962 children in foster care in San Mateo County under the aegis of the two above mentioned departments. Of this total, 784 (81.5%) had been adjudged dependent, and 178 (18.5%), delinquent. Thus, foster care emerges as currently concerned mainly with the problem of dependency.

2. The findings also indicated that:

a. Black children constituted 21.9% of all children in foster care in San Mateo County; that is, 4.5 times the proportion of blacks in this county's population;

b. Other nonwhite children--Chicano, Asian-American, and American-Indian--constituted 5.3% of all children in foster care in San Mateo County. This percentage is only slightly higher than the percentage of other nonwhites in the county (3.9%). Only a minute number of Asian-American children were found to be living in foster care;

c. Due to the disproportionately high incidence of black children in foster placement, the percentage of white foster children--71.6%--is lower than the proportion of whites in the San Mateo County population--91.4%.

3. The findings show that 45.5% of Black children were 9 years of age or younger as compared with 32.7% of Caucasian children in the same age bracket. From these data one can infer that the proportion of Black foster children is likely to increase.

4. Of all foster children, almost 75% spent over a year in placement. Such a time span constitutes long-term foster care by accepted standards.

5. Of all children in foster care, 509 (over 53%) had spent one-fourth of their total lives in placement.

6. Of all children in foster care for whom duration of stay in present home could be ascertained, 565 (60%) had been in their present home from one to seven or more years.

7. Only 37 children had been relinquished for adoption. This constitutes less than 4% of the total, and less than 13% of the dependent children under the auspices of the Department of Public Health and Welfare.

8. Of the entire group in foster care, the mother had sole custody in relation to 473 or almost half of the children; both parents had joint custody in relation to 270 or almost 29% of the children.

9. Of all children in foster care, neglect or abuse was the major reason for placement for more than 36% (345); abandonment accounted for another 16% (156). These data indicate the extent of problems these children have had or are experiencing, and shed some light on the fact that 464 out of 962 were found to have an identifiable physical or emotional problem.

10. Survey findings clearly establish that in San Mateo County, as in the rest of the country, long-term care in a foster home (defined as placement for a year or longer) is a reality for a majority of foster children.

San Mateo County Foster Children Served by the Project

Direct social services were provided by Project students to 49 foster children. Of these, a majority were referred by the Watoto division of the Probation Department; only 16 came from Public Welfare. The criteria for rendering direct services included minority group status and children under 9 years of age. Thus, by design, the children in the Project differed from the total foster care population in these respects. (It should be noted in this connection that among children from nonwhite ethnic groups, almost half of Public Welfare and Watoto children were in this age group.) The age of the children also had a bearing on such variables as proportion of life span in placement, and duration of placement.

However, Project children were comparable to all children in foster care in San Mateo County with respect to legal status, sex, and performance in school. They contained a larger proportion who had been neglected or abused, but they also had considerably fewer health problems. Both demographic projections and the Project survey findings indicate that minority children will constitute a growing segment of the foster care population of the future.

Of the 49 children served by the Project, three were returned to their own families and one was placed for adoption. Adoption was the service plan for 12 children, guardianship was suggested for six others, and one child was recommended for group home care. Planned placement in long-term foster care was the service plan for 26 of the 49 Project children.

FINDINGS IN REGARD TO THE SECOND OBJECTIVE

These findings describe the students who participated in the Project; discuss the types of learning students experienced as participants; compare educational attainments in undergraduate and graduate social work programs; and evaluate the readiness of BA social workers for professional practice in child welfare.

Students in the Project

Although the bulk of services in social work have been and are being performed by individuals without a graduate degree, the social work profession has been slow in recognizing the professional contribution which undergraduates can make. While Madison pioneered in 1960 with an undergraduate program which provided a practicum, the Council on Social Work Education did not stipulate a similar requirement until 1971. In the interim, a number of research and demonstration projects addressed the issue of deploying BA degree holders to render direct client services, thereby clarifying the implications of such deployment for undergraduate education.

The program at California State University, San Francisco, provides learning experiences "necessary for professional social work practice" as one of the goals of its curriculum. Field instruction emphasizes the integration of knowledge, theory and understanding derived from foundation courses and content areas into social work skills required by such practice. The Project wished to assess the capacity of students graduating from this program to undertake professional practice.

For participation in the Project, selection criteria were designed to maximize the number of nonwhite students by alerting them to service opportunities with minority children. In other respects, students had grades ranging from Cs through As. Seventeen of the 30 were average in academic attainments. The students came from middle and lower-middle class homes, and most were employed when they began service in the Project. Their prior social work experience was extremely limited. All but two were women.

Student motivations for becoming social workers varied widely. Of the 30, four had come out of business careers which they had found spiritually unrewarding. Seven had personally experienced poverty and deprivation and were motivated by a desire to help others achieve social justice. Eight students had no personal acquaintance with poverty, but, through observing the suffering of others felt impelled to enter a helping profession. Four students were interested in working with specific categories of people with problems, such as the deaf, retarded or delinquent, and felt they could pursue this goal through a social work career. Finally, a fifth group of seven students chose social work because they wanted to transform humanitarian impulses into service, or because their general orientation seemed to point to social work as a desirable career choice.

Teaching Experienced by Students in the Project

Student learning in the Project was stimulated and furthered by three features which characterized the teaching they experienced: a team approach, an academic seminar that took place concurrently with field instruction, and a system of teaching, individual and team, by Project supervisors.

Within the limitations imposed on it by the policies and practices of cooperating agencies, the Project implemented the idea that a team approach to service delivery--that is, a team including staff with varying levels of education and different kinds of experience--can promote more rapid professional growth and provide social services of higher quality than the hierarchical approach employed in most agencies. An effort was made to have all Project members interact with each other in a collegial manner, rather than viewing teachers and supervisors simply as persons in authority, and other students as competitors interested in enhancing their own status and image. It was found that this approach brought about a greater responsibility on the part of each student for his own educational and professional development. It also contributed to his sense of security by building upon his strengths and by compensating for his weaknesses, whenever possible, by using others in the team to help him perform more adequately. Dealing with problems in collegial fashion likewise tended to cut through escape mechanisms some students employ to avoid making difficult or unpleasant decisions in connection with client service--such as wasting time in circuitous discussions, asking for unnecessary psychiatric consultations, arguing that they need more information, etc.

The major focus of the seminar was on utilizing case presentations by the students for the purpose of clarifying and broadening their experiences and readings, and for developing their diagnostic and intervention skills. The seminar instructor adopted the primary role of providing an expanding theoretical perspective pertinent to social work practice, as well as relating to the practical, function-connected problems that students were experiencing in their field placements. Inputs by these placements were the substantive and structural axes for the seminar. The instructor viewed its strength as resting upon its integrated nature: agency operations, field placement supervision, access to agency resources, and seminar instruction were all integrated around the commonality of needs and experiences derived from the students' functioning in the field. This meant, among other things, that to be of help to his students, the seminar instructor had to know what was really going on in the agencies.

Teaching by Project supervisors was related both to the demands of the Project and to the operating procedures of the two cooperating agencies in which students were placed. Supervisors taught through individual conferences and team meetings. The conferences were geared to the student's individual needs and the unique demands of each case; the team meetings (meetings of the six students at two-week intervals in the supervisor's home) focused on securing help from informed and concerned peers--in relation to particular case situations, but more especially, with problems and expectations students had of themselves as social workers. Students helped each other recognize their individual strengths and shortcomings when dealing with people and social issues. The impact of team teaching was enhanced by the fact that the content of each discussion was determined by students and that the supervisor/teacher acted primarily as a resource person and clarifier rather than as an "authority."

Educational Attainments in Undergraduate and Graduate Social Work Programs

The nature and extent of differences between graduates of baccalaureate and master's programs in the areas of social work knowledge, social attitudes, and practice skills were studied. With advance planning, it was possible to coordinate the work of the Project in this respect with a similar inquiry being conducted at California State University, San Diego. Thus, it was possible to compare undergraduate Project students with undergraduates from San Diego, and with three groups of social work graduate students at different stages in their educational career.

While this inquiry had no formal hypotheses, it was expected that graduate students would excel undergraduates in social work knowledge and practice skills, and would have attitudes more in harmony with the value system of the social work profession. To obtain data, the test instruments described in Chapter 2 were employed.

Initially, the social work majors at San Francisco and San Diego were compared, and it was found that they did not differ significantly on social work knowledge and attitudes. Practice skills could not be assessed because this test was not given San Diego students due to unavoidable time pressures.

When undergraduates were compared with graduate students on a social work knowledge test, graduate students were found to score significantly higher. They also obtained higher scores on 18 out of 25 dimensions of a form rating social work practice skills. However, the two levels of education did not differ significantly in the area of social work values.

Interpretation of the differences found in practice skills between undergraduate Project students and graduate students in San Diego is complicated by the finding that the San Diego program used a much more liberal field grading system than was employed by the Project. This difference in grading practice affects the rating of the elements in the form on practice performance which is used as the basis for giving a grade. Hence, differences in practice skills may be more apparent than real, and may rest on a more liberal grading policy in San Diego.

Evaluation of Student Readiness for Professional Practice in Child Welfare

Upon entering the Project, students were queried in regard to the major problems they expected to encounter in working with natural parents, foster children, foster parents and community. It was found that student expectations in this context were more vague in regard to the community than with reference to other elements in the foster care process; and that, with some exceptions, their ideas about problems in working with children and parents reflected quite adequately what does in fact often occur in "real life." This suggested, from the point of view of abstract cognitive and attitudinal positions, that these students were endowed with a significant potential for the development of practice skills.

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The above also suggested the desirability of strengthening student knowledge and understanding of the community. This was done by placements in a range of social service agencies in San Mateo County, and by discussions in the seminar to which representatives of the two cooperating agencies and other community resource personnel were invited.

Subsequently, students were assigned foster care cases. Sixteen students each carried one case and nine, two cases each. It was the position of the Project staff that each student should be helped to learn at his own pace, and to take on the kind and amount of responsibility he was capable of fulfilling. Student services ranged in length from six to nine months (the latter constituting a full academic year.) The service needs of Project children varied widely, and included medical or psychiatric evaluation and treatment, and psychotherapeutic intervention with the child, foster parents, or natural parents.

The activities undertaken and carried out by students in serving clients were described on an on-going basis through the weekly reports which they prepared. While these reports presented a wide spectrum of activities, a detailed content analysis showed that they could be identified and classified into certain recognizable groupings which related to processes important in child welfare services. These included diagnostic assessments of persons involved in the foster care situation; decision-making around the optimum short-range and long-range plan for the child; intervention or the rendering of services; and development of knowledge about agency and community in order to see client needs, limitations of service, and ways to improve service in a broader perspective.

The content analysis also revealed an uneven quantitative distribution of activities. Diagnostic assessment and development of knowledge about agency and community emerged as the "strong" areas of student activity; decision-making, planning and intervention, as the "weak" areas. (It may be argued that these "weak" areas are characteristic of foster care services in general!)

Another limitation revealed by the content analysis was the inability of a large number of students to express themselves coherently and clearly in oral and written reports.

Ratings of skill level in providing direct services by two independent judges indicated substantial agreement as to skill level attained.

The final evaluation of student readiness for professional practice, based on the presence or absence of five abilities, was made by the Project director and the student supervisor. Those students who had demonstrated unquestioned and consistent ability in all five areas were deemed ready for beginning professional practice. Those who had shown some ability in all five areas but needed additional field experience were placed in a second category, and those who evidenced little or no potential ability in at least three areas were placed in a third group.

It was the consensus of the Project director and of the student supervisor that nine of 25 students (36%) were ready for professional practice at the end of nine months (an academic year comprising 240 hours of field work) of field practicum; that seven (28%) were not ready without additional field instruction; and that the remaining nine students (36%) were neither ready for professional practice nor endowed with the potential for developing such readiness.

In evaluating these outcomes, it was found that background variables, previous work experience and abstract cognitive and attitudinal positions did not serve as predictive factors. The factor which had the greatest, although not entirely consistent, predictive value in relation to student performance was grade point average: those who were judged ready to begin practice were all at least B students, those who demonstrated potential for readiness with additional field work instruction were all high C or low B students, and those who had no significant potential for becoming social work practitioners, (with two exceptions), were either low or average C students.

FINDINGS IN REGARD TO THE THIRD OBJECTIVE

These findings delineate the key issues that block the effective delivery of child welfare services; address these issues; and provide, in Appendix B, detailed illustrative materials which show how modern, dynamic, management systems can be applied to delivery problems so as to meet better the needs of the community and of consumers of services.

Key Issues in Delivering Child Welfare Services

While the need for change pervades all levels of government concerned with the delivery of social services, the findings of the Project concentrate on public agencies that serve people directly and on changes that should take place at that level. In this context, the major issues were found to be:

1. The need to change organizational structure and relationships. This addresses current tendencies of agencies to place welfare service functions into highly fragmented organizations, which leads to breakdowns in coordination, lack of cohesiveness in services, and unrealistic rigidity in perceiving and solving client problems. Included are discussions concerning the appropriate placement of child welfare services in the public welfare hierarchy; improvements in organizational and staff coordination; and relationships of child welfare services with other agencies in the community.

2. The need for accessibility of services. This includes the responsibility for making it possible for clients to obtain the services they need without undue hardship and delay.

3. The need for availability of services. This involves the requirement for a full range of services to meet individual needs; availability of varied services in the particular community or circumstances; planning and coordination and the fixing of responsibility for specific actions when referrals to other agencies are involved.

4. Duplicating and overlapping services. This deals with the centralization-decentralization problem, in an administrative context. Administrative decentralization makes possible the delegation of certain operational responsibilities from higher to lower units. Decentralization permits

greater flexibility in adjusting programs to local conditions and, hence, produces more effective programs.

5. Continuity and flow of services. This deals with the waste inherent in interruption of continuity, and the role of coordination and communications among different agencies or organizational elements within the same agency.

6. The need for involvement of the community. In relation to this issue, the existing forms of community involvement are reviewed and a position entertained by the authors of this Report, presented; namely, that there is a compelling need for a more direct, on-going, involvement of consumers of child welfare services in the every-day delivery of such services.

7. Manpower utilization. The crux of this issue is found to be not a shortage, but rather a chronic maldistribution and malutilization of qualified personnel. A number of other problems--e.g., the lower competitive position of social work relative to other professions--aggravate manpower problems in social service agencies. In line with these findings, and taking into account the emergence of the BA social worker as the beginning professional practitioner, the position is developed that manpower management in social service delivery systems of the future must emphasize the proper use of personnel with varying degrees and varieties of skills--an appropriate "mix" of skills suitable to the community and services required.

8. The need to assure effective management and produce measurable results. Recent developments which make this need forcefully clear are reviewed, and constructive possibilities are outlined for improving both the quality and quantity of social service.

The findings indicate that the issues that currently frustrate the efficient delivery of child welfare services, as outlined above, are common to all large organizations charged with providing services to people, whatever their nature. Consequently, it was possible for the management consultants affiliated with the Project to apply to the model they designed for a delivery system for child welfare services, the knowledge and experience gained in other large public service operations. The design process included appropriate adaptations, to enhance the usefulness and relevance of the model in its particular setting. Each issue is addressed in some detail and, in addition (in Appendix B), example applications show how to create and apply the model in "real life." For this purpose, detailed illustrative materials are furnished which show how modern, dynamic management systems can be applied in child welfare organizations. At this point in the turbulent evolution of public social services, one special interest is how to establish "goal-oriented" social services systems, characterized by consistency in services, by systematic and reliable tools for measuring the effectiveness of services, and by program and budget accountability.

In view of the primordial importance of manpower aspects in the delivery of services and because of the Project's concern with integrating the emerging patterns of professional education with service delivery systems (which, in turn, must take into account the needs of clients--in this case, of children in placement), special attention was given to manpower utilization problems. After an exhaustive review of the literature and a careful study of the implications of employing a variety of patterns of manpower utilization as they relate to the entire delivery system, it was determined that the proper use of teams promises by far the best results.

Regardless of many possible varying operational patterns, the team concept involves organizing into a single unit a group of workers with differing educational and skill backgrounds. The individuals work together under a team leader who coordinates their efforts to accomplish the goals for each specific case.

The child welfare team model proposed by the Project consists of a team leader (MSW or BA in social work), social workers (MSW and BA in social work), community worker (degree not required), consumer member (degree not required), and a team secretary (degree not required). The responsibilities of each team member are discussed. Of an innovative character is the concept of the consumer member. His inclusion in the team, to participate in team service in a quasi-official capacity, is based upon the vital need to involve the community in the daily, direct team service to its clientele. The consumer member is an individual who is, or has been, a recipient of social services. He works directly with the team members, participates in team decision-making, and is responsible for advice and assistance that make explicit client interests and aspirations. The consumer member does not serve on a full-time, continuing basis; rather, he is called in periodically, when his special involvement is important. This means that over a period of time, a sizable number of consumers, representing, hopefully, a full range of consumer interest, will contribute to the work of the team. The consumer member is visualized as being paid on a per diem basis.

IMPLICATIONS

IMPLICATIONS CONCERNING NEED FOR LONG-TERM FOSTER FAMILY CARE

The survey of San Mateo County foster care population clearly indicated that the proportion of minority children, particularly blacks, is larger than the proportion of blacks in the county's total population. Also the percentage of black foster children under age 9 exceeds that of white children in foster care. Both of these facts are indicators that the number and the proportion of black children in foster care are likely to remain high.

The problems which brought the majority of San Mateo County foster children into the child welfare network—neglect, abuse and abandonment--point to defective parent-child relationships, often aggravated by the economic or psychological deprivation of the adults involved. While casework help and other services may be offered to these parents, in many cases they may not repair damaged family relationships sufficiently for the children to be returned home. The supply of adoptive homes for black children continues far short of demand (Appendix A), consequently, the improvement of foster care services for these children is an urgent priority in the child welfare system.

Early exploration as to the feasibility of returning a child to his natural parents, or placing him for adoption, is nevertheless indicated and should be vigorously pursued. However, if these options are not tenable or cannot be achieved within a reasonable period of time, then an alternative plan should be implemented which provides continuity in the child's life. Planned long-term or permanent foster family care is one such alternative. In San Mateo County approximately 75% of all foster children remain in foster care for over a year. This constitutes long-term placement by the criteria currently accepted. The fact that of 49 children served by the Project, 26 or 53%, were found to need long-term foster family care suggests that for a sizable number of children, long-term placement continues to be carried out by default rather than by plan. It is likely as well that earlier and more decisive planning for these 26, prior to their referral to the Project, might have allowed for a different service plan for some. In short, if the resources and skills of an agency are utilized most when a child first comes into placement, chances for a sound service plan are immeasurably enhanced. For a significant proportion of such children, a sound service plan will be long-term foster family care.

The implications of the San Mateo County findings seem to reflect the situation country-wide.

1. A comprehensive survey of the literature and examination of current practices makes it clear that a high proportion of the children presently in the foster family care system are from minority groups. Nor was there found any compelling reasons to think that the supply of minority children, both those who are newcomers to the child welfare services network and those who have been in foster care for some time, will diminish so appreciably in the near future that all will be placed in good adoptive homes.

2. Even if subsidized adoption helps to narrow the gap and is found to be "as good as" regular adoption, it remains to be seen whether subsidized adoption is "as good as" permanent and long-term foster care for those children who need that solution.

3. It is the social and emotional qualities of home life that are crucial to the maximum development of all children--qualities that must be present in all homes, no matter how they are labelled. Those who work with families and children know that it is not invariably true that a positive correlation exists between legal security and the degree to which these qualities are in fact present. After all, it is the most legally binding relationships that generate the need for substitute homes. Nor is is certain that financial compensation, per se--to own parents for maintaining the home for the child, to adoptive parents to help them adopt, to permanent and long-term foster parents to help them become adoptive parents--will assure these qualities any more than payments to good foster parents to remain good foster parents.

The implication is that for some years to come, it will be necessary to have an increasing variety of services for children and families; that planned long-term foster family care should be available as one service among many; and that the quality of service, its planned nature and making services available and accessible when needed are the crux.

IMPLICATIONS CONCERNING EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF SOCIAL WORKERS

The undergraduate social work curriculum in operation at San Francisco, a curriculum approved by the Council on Social Work Education in 1971, currently requires 240 clock hours of directed field instruction with engagement in direct service activities. Given this curriculum, the Project findings imply that only somewhat more than a third of the students can be adequately prepared to begin professional practice (in Project context, in child welfare). If, however, the number of hours of directed field instruction are increased to at least 300-400, as the Council's 1973 guidelines require, it is likely that almost two-thirds of the students could be prepared for such practice. From the experience gained in this Project, it appears that the Council's new directives on field work are sound.

At the same time, Project findings imply that more than a third of the current graduates are not and never will be able to undertake professional social work practice. This is not surprising under admission requirements such as at San Francisco, where any student who has a C average and who states that he wishes to major in social work, must be admitted. Apparently, not everyone who thinks that he will make a good social worker can in fact become one--a lack of congruence that undoubtedly operates in every profession.

The above underscores the soundness of positions taken at the Allenberry Colloquium in regard to "entry and exit visas in baccalaureate social work":

> *...the tendency was for an openness around admission along with a desire for an opportunity to engage the student before he is admitted. On the question of exit, the matter is different. ...undergraduate social work educators are the gatekeepers. They must decide who is competent to enter the profession of social work and who is not. ...Whether we permit the student to complete the program or ask him to leave, this action ought to be based on the student's performance in our curriculum and according to our criteria for performance. We should not get caught up in the student's unconscious problems (47:65).*

The question that needs to be answered is whether undergraduate social work education should continue "the tendency..for an openness around admission," or should introduce a supposedly rigorous selection procedure (assuming that it will be permitted to do so by the institutions in which it is lodged). Rigorous selection--to reduce waste of scarce resources, human and financial--would be desirable, provided a reliable method to achieve it could be found. To our knowledge, such a method has yet to be devised by the social sciences. Note that the only factor of predictive value derived in this study--and not a consistent one--was grade point average. Diversified grading standards, however, limit its usefulness as an admission criterion.

Project findings, for example, indicate that while not all undergraduate students were found capable of rendering professional services in child welfare, a similar outcome would have been likely had the more rigorous standards of the Project been applied to graduate students involved in comparable work situations. The unusual disparity in field grading practices between the (undergraduate) Project and a graduate school of social work underlines the limited standards by which students are assessed in many schools. Such practices may provide some momentary satisfaction for a student about his grades, but they are not likely to lead him on to seek to improve his practice. If, as was found, over 70% of first year graduate students received an A in their first semester of field work, it might be assumed that this resulted from either a rare and unusual student group or from indulgent field instructors. Acquaintance with the school leads us to believe that the latter is the case. (There is reason to believe that some undergraduates also raise their grades through faculty beneficence, while others can barely maintain an acceptable grade point average because of high faculty standards.)

On balance, it appears that undergraduate programs must continue an open admission policy. At the same time, however, there should be some experimentation with placing students in field work in the last semester of their junior year, rather than waiting for the senior year, as is usually the case now. This would allow those students demonstrating poor potential for social work to modify their career choices without trauma. The Project demonstrated that it is quite possible to assess student potential for social work during one semester (4.5 months) of field instruction.

Our findings make clear that for many students a major block to becoming professionals is that they lack the basic tools for doing business, so to speak. This is especially evident when it comes to expressing their thoughts in a clear, orderly manner and, in some instances, in expressing their thoughts at all, i.e., to write and speak in proper English.

To what extent the social work curriculum can or should become involved in correcting a lack of basic foundation depends somewhat upon the urgency of need for trained manpower in the social services. For social work schools to turn out improperly prepared candidates would seem to be an unacceptable solution in any event. Given the need to use the final two undergraduate years intensively and productively if the student is to become a professional, it is doubtful that any of this time can or should be used to teach or retrain students to read and write basic English (or to do the simple arithmetic which often is needed in handling client financial problems). It is also doubtful that social work educators should expend their time in teaching basic education skills.

Project findings also imply that in addition to helping students develop the counseling abilities needed to engage clients to deal with interpersonal and other problems, it is equally essential to teach them to be consciously goal-oriented--to avoid enmeshing themselves in psychological niceties and sterile perfectionism to the point of becoming ineffectual or inert. A goal-oriented philosophy applied to child welfare underscores, among other things, the primordial importance of making decisions on behalf of children early in their placement careers--decisions that are usually difficult and often unpleasant. It is also likely to cut down on time-wasting techniques indiscriminate resort to professional supports, and resentment against reasonable demands to show movement toward agreed-upon goals.

It is not easy to teach students to examine all the possible service alternatives for each child, to direct their efforts toward meeting the child's genuine needs--rather than doing only what they perceive as being agency policy, or supervisory preference, or making abstract judgments about

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one type of service being "better" than another, or remaining neutral and thus allowing the continuation of status quo. This calls for initiative and knowledge, ability to educate foster parents in regard to alternative plans for each child, and for advocacy. Some students are inclined to confine their activities to a narrow, over-individualized, approach; others tend to do nothing because they believe that nothing can be done unless society is "restructured." To help students attain a balance between genuinely individualized service, and, at the same time, show them the way to broader social change, is a challenge constantly besetting field work instructors and supervisors.

Learning is more manageable and more meaningful for the student when he relates to a given area of service and when his peers are working in the same area. At the same time, we were able to integrate specialized child welfare knowledge into broader social work service areas. For example, in child placement work, it is essential to know and understand how to work with families--and all that this implies in regard to the entire social fabric and the resources that society has developed (or failed to develop) to assist families in carrying out their evolving functions. Our experience implies that students learn better when field instruction is "specialist"--rather than "generalist"--oriented.

IMPLICATIONS CONCERNING ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT OF CHILD WELFARE ACTIVITIES

Findings in relation to the service delivery system in child welfare make clear that the problems which currently cause it to be cumbersome, slow and ineffective may be substantially eliminated by the application of modern and dynamic management techniques. The model of service delivery which we propose and which incorporates such techniques, has a great deal to offer toward improving service delivery. What is needed is intelligent experimentation with this model, to test it in real life, to modify it as necessary, and to use it effectively.

A crucial element in this model, one that has been tested already in many settings, is the team concept of manpower utilization. There is every reason to believe that substituting this concept for the currently prevalent hierarchical pattern, with its demonstrated weaknesses, will result in significant improvements in the quality of services and in an appreciable increase in caseload capacity. The team model has important implications for the education of social workers. They must be taught how to participate in a team atmosphere--with all that this implies in knowledge and appreciation of basic team management concepts and the ability to apply them appropriately. In addition to "human growth and environment," social workers must learn how to manage their workloads, how to use their time for most effective results, how to keep current in regard to the progress of each case within their jurisdiction, and how to utilize feed-back as a constructive tool in the movement toward goals. Management skill will need to be recognized just as client relationship skill has been.

Underlying the new service model is the concept of dynamic management. Social services agencies vary widely in the extent to which they have employed modern management techniques. A dynamic management approach implies that administration is not stabilized but alert to new developments and to new requirements. As a minimum, it is necessary to clearly define the mission of the agency, establish the policies and goals needed to accomplish the mission, and organize operations for maximum effectiveness and coordination of effort. Such a system also must include a functional management control system to plan, program and budget for effective use and control of resources.

Perhaps the major implication of the findings of this Project is that the social service establishment—seen as a dynamic whole composed of clients needing services, of staff qualified to provide services, and delivery systems that employ modern methods to obtain maximum use of the resources available for service delivery--must be willing to face the expanding requirements of the 1970s. Services for children must include more of those actually needed; social work education must produce more competent practitioners with varied needed levels of skill, and who know how to work with others in a collegial relationship; and service delivery systems must incorporate modern management techniques and organizational patterns that will achieve desired results. Tools to accomplish these things are already available. The need is to use the tools at hand imaginatively, guided by a philosophy that recognizes that new requirements demand new methods and new ideas for improved services.

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APPENDIXES

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APPENDIX A:

BLACK ADOPTION: ISSUES AND POLICIES – AN ANALYTIC REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Placement in adoption of minority group children has included Blacks, Puerto Ricans, American Indians, Orientals, Latin Americans, Mexicans, Vietnamese, and children of mixed racial backgrounds. This review of the literature concentrates on black adoption and traces its development in the post-World War II era.* The fragmentary and inconclusive nature of some of the materials that are analyzed is a reflection of the fact that there is a "lack of a solid information system for the child welfare field"--lack of "sound, up-to-date data on characteristics of children in care, services being offered, and the functioning of the system..."**

THE 1945-1960 PERIOD

Marked efforts on behalf of black children in need of adoption began after 1945 (2,3,7,12-26) and were intensified in the aftermath of the National Adoption Survey of the Child Welfare League of America (CWLA) and the National Conference on Adoption in 1955. The following was a key Survey finding:

> ...a much smaller percentage of Negro children is adopted than white children, and...the majority of Negro placements may be done independently and without recourse to official court action. (There is) little doubt that many more non-white children are in need of adoption services than the actual number adopted. ...Because of the paucity of (adoptive) homes, those who are accepted for adoptive placement remain under care

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* Some materials used here do not separate black from other nonwhite children. The U.S. Children's Bureau estimates that about 60 percent of nonwhite adoptive children are black.

** Jenkins, Shirley. Priorities in Social Services: A guide for Philanthropic Funding. Vol. 1: Child Welfare in New York City (New York: Prager Publishers, 1971), 33.

> almost twice as long, on the average, as most other children. Therefore, they require more time and expense to serve (8:9-11).

Following the National Conference on Adoption, several additional projects were established in various parts of the country for the purpose of discovering what conditions were hampering the placement of minority children and for developing new techniques and more imaginative approaches to recruitment of adoptive homes (1,4,5,6,9,11).

On the whole, the results of these efforts were quite disappointing. A 1955 comparison of the situation of white and black children noted that "the ratio of white applicants for every white infant available for adoption was estimated as high as 8:1 and rarely lower than 2:1, but the ratio of available Negro children to Negro applicants was (estimated as) 10-20:1" (8:9). A 1959 study in New York State of children of all age groups available for adoption indicated that there were 35 nonwhite children for every available adoptive parent; in contrast, there were only two white children for each waiting family (10:27). Thus, the shortage of adoptive homes for minority children remained critical.

THE 1960-1970 DECADE

Quantitative aspects: 1955-1969

U.S. Children's Bureau data show that during the 5-year period 1958-62, adoptions of white children ranged from over 19,000 to more than 23,000 whereas only between 1,685 and 2,518 non-related adoptions of nonwhite children occurred. The latter, however, had the highest net amount of change--42.5% for the five years. These two aspects of the quantitative situation brought about the fact that in the decade 1955-65, the percentage of nonwhite adoptions increased more than that of white adoptions, but agencies were stili unable to find enough adoptive families for nonwhite children, so that the largest segment of unplaceable children continued to belong to minority groups.

For the years 1962-64, inclusive, the number of nonwhite children placed for adoption represented approximately 10% of all children so placed. In 1965, more than 57% of all children born out of wedlock were nonwhite; but only 9% of the total number of unrelated adoptions were of nonwhite children (28:1). As a result, minority children continued to be over-represented among those waiting to be taken out of shelters, and among those living out their childhood in institutions and foster homes. Writing in 1966, for example, Garrett drew the following picture:

> ...a large proportion of the children crowding the cities' 'temporary shelters' are children from minority groups--especially Negroes, Puerto Ricans, and other Spanish-speaking Americans. ...In the Washington, D.C. shelter, 97 percent of the children are Negro. About 70 percent

> of the children awaiting placement in New York City belong to minority ethnic groups. In Richmond, Virginia, the number of Negro children in foster care increased 164 percent in the eight years ending July 1, 1964, as compared with a 60 percent increase in white children in foster care (30:3).

In 1969, of the eligible white children, 71% were placed in adoptive homes; the comparable percentage for nonwhite children was 31 (31:489). A CWLA survey showed that in 1969, for every 100 white children awaiting adoption there were 116 prospective adoptive homes, whereas for every 100 nonwhite children, there were 39 such homes (27). In that year, only 11% of the children adopted in the United States were nonwhite (29).

Efforts by the Social Work Profession to Increase and Improve Adoptive Services for Black Children

In the face of these poignantly unsatisfactory facts, the social work profession redoubled its efforts to find permanent homes for minority children.* These efforts gathered momentum throughout the 1960s and have been continued into the 1970s.**

ARENA. The Adoption Resource Exchange of North America was established in 1967 by CWLA as a clearing house to help agencies in the United States and Canada to place children with special needs (33). It was developed as an additional resource for state and regional exchanges (by 1967 there were 42 such exchanges, operated for the most part by State departments of public welfare) as well as for individual adoption agencies. ARENA's plan to bring together would-be adoptive parents and children awaiting adoption, living in different parts of the continent, grew out of the success of the League's American Indian Project, initiated in 1958 and financed by the U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs, which had placed

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* While attempting to find more homes, child welfare workers were also concerned to reverse the finding that "given the essential attributes which make for competent parents, the applicant who is offered, and accepts, the child with special needs is very likely to be the applicant with marginal eligibility as an adoptive parent" (Kadushin, Alfred, "A Study of Adoptive Parents of Hard-to-Place Children," Social Casework, XLIII, No. 5, May 1962), 233. Child welfare workers were also cognizant of the finding that "Racial background very definitely affect(s) placements, both the success in finding homes for the children and the success of the placement after it was made" (Nordlie, Esther and Reed, Sheldon, "Follow-up on Adoption Counseling for Children of Possible Racial Admixture," Child Welfare, XLI, No. 7 (September 1962), 304.

** To some extent the gathering momentum of these efforts was probably spurred by social critics who assailed agency adoption policies and concepts. See, for example, Dr. H. David Kirk, Shared Fate: A Theory of Adoption and Mental Health (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1964); and Pearl Buck, Children for Adoption (New York: Random House, 1965).

400 Indian Children with white adoptive parents.* The ARENA "operation was seen also as a way to help raise the level of adoption practice for all children. It was seen as a mechanism that would broaden the perspective of agencies through their contacts with other agencies. A desirable standardization of practices and procedures was anticipated. It was also envisioned that one function of ARENA would be to identify legal barriers that block or hinder interstate placement and to work toward eliminating them" (32:1).

"Quasi-Adoption." This program was initiated in 1964 by the Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania after 15 years of experimentation in attempting to achieve a higher number of adoption placements for black children. Writing in 1966 Lawder described the origin of this program as follows:

> ("Quasi-adopion") grew out of a growing community concern over the emotional damage mounting in the many Negro infants and young children who, because there were no homes for them, remained for excessive lengths of time in the Philadelphia General Hospital and the temporary shelters of the Philadelphia Department of Public Welfare. At the same time, (her agency) was receiving applications for children from families who were neither prospective adoption applicants nor prospective foster parents in the conventional sense (37:11-12). ...These families said they could not endure the heartache of separating from a child in whom they had invested so much. When the possibility of adoption was explored with these families, various reasons, economic and psychological, were given for preferring foster care. Among (these) reasons...financial uncertainty and anxiety about legal responsibility for the child predominated (34:2).

These "quasi-adoption" parents were given assurance that the agency's total services were available to help child and family grow together and that, should they delay in deciding about adoption, they could be reclassified as permanent foster parents and continue to receive payment for the child's expenses. The agency was able to report encouraging results in 1967 (35:45) and 1968 (36:583): namely, doubling at a relatively small cost the number of homes available for the permanent placement of black children.

A more detailed study, comparing the outcomes of the traditional and the quasi-adoption program in this agency, was published in 1971. Included were 60 "traditional" families with 63 children, and 63 "quasi-adoption" families with 71 children. An important finding was the following:

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* Literature about the American Indian Project includes the following: Lyslo, Arnold, "Adoptive Placement of American Indian Children with Non-Indian Families: The Indian Adoption Project," *Child Welfare,* XL, No. 5 (May 1961), 4-6; Fanshel, David, "Indian Adoption Project," *Child Welfare,* XLIII, No. 9 (November 1964), 486-88; and David Fanshel, *Far From the Reservation: The Transracial Adoption of American Indian Children* (Metuchen, New Jersey: Scarecrow Press, 1972).

> The parents in the quasi-adoption program were older, were less secure economically, and had less education and fewer job skills. The children placed with them, as compared with those placed in traditional adoption homes, had had more foster home placements, longer stays in institutions and shelters during infancy, more abuse and more neglect. Nevertheless, there were no statistically significant differences in the functioning of the two groups of parents nor in that of the two groups of children (34:73-74).

Long-Term and Permanent Foster Family Care. Unable to find adoptive homes for all of the black children who needed them and/or unable to free for adoption some who would benefit by it, many agencies developed long-term and permanent foster family care. For example, Spence-Chapin Adoption Service initiated a special project to provide such care, in August 1962, "to dependent children in the well-baby wards of hospitals and in shelters--children who would otherwise be homeless. The Agency wished to insure, by placing these children in early infancy and by using a family-centered approach, that most of them would be so absorbed by the selected families that they would grow up in these homes. Their adoption by the selected families was not the Agency's primary goal. At the same time, the Agency assumed that adoption would be a probability for some..." (39:167).

As a matter of fact, a study covering the first six years of the project showed that of the 1,211 children accepted by September 1968, 21.6% had been adopted. This was a very high adoption rate: in the country as a whole, less than 10% of the nonwhite children born out of wedlock were adopted. In New York City in 1965, only 8.6% of children under 16 years of age were discharged from foster care through adoption, and for New York State, the comparable percentage was 5.5 (39:170). The increase in the proportion of Spence-Chapin's project children placed in adoption rose steadily: from five children in 1962 who constituted 5% of all those received into the project in that year, to 54 children in 1967 who constituted 19% of the received children in that year (38:207).

Subsidized Adoption. This is an arrangement by which a social agency makes financial payments to a set of adoptive parents beyond the point of their legal consummation of the adoption. Subsidies are of three general types: those for specific services, such as medical care, legal services, or special education; time-limited subsidies to be agreed upon by the family and the agency to help absorb the costs of transition into a family with an additional member; and long-term subsidies in the form of monthly payments until the child is grown (40;43:4). A 1969 study suggested that subsidized adoption provides considerable potential financial saving in comparison with the costs of long-term foster care (41). New York was the first state to pass a subsidized adoption law in 1968 (45;46;47). By 1969, four states had approved the use of public funds for subsidized adoption; by 1973, 22 states had done so (44:35).

Subsidized adoption strives to combine the best features of permanent foster care and adoption. The family gains the legal status of adoption, but the agency or state continues some type of subsidy. The parents have all the legal rights of regular adoption, but retain the income and other services, as necessary, from the agency.

As yet, systematic investigation is lacking on many questions.* For example: Are the outcomes of subsidized adoptions superior to those of foster care? Should a subsidized adoption program be accompanied by casework counseling? Should there be limits on amount of subsidy and the length of time it is granted? Should there be a plan for periodic review? According to Gallagher, experience has shown that eligibility requirements pertaining to income of a family should not be specifically indicated but determined on an individual basis. The amount of subsidy should be flexible--not an exact dollar amount. Full costs for treatment of medical problems existing prior to adoption should be included in subsidy agreements, unless community resources can provide the needed treatment (44:35).

Experience gained so far also indicates that in some instances what were formerly "impossible" adoptions are now possible, the subsidy being one of the most important factors in the success of the adoption (50). In Maryland, the subsidized adoption program is proving beneficial in providing adoptive homes for handicapped children and children of minority or mixed race (48). Speaking in 1971, Watson reported that the number of subsidized placements was still small, "but if they represent adoptive homes for children who would otherwise not have them, the results are encouraging" (49:272). At that time, his count (probably not a complete one) suggested that over 600 such adoptions had been approved. By January 1972, 300 children had been adopted by their former foster parents under subsidy in New York alone.

Watson noted that although the wording of the legislation varies widely, certain common elements are present; namely, the subsidy is for the purpose of obtaining an adoptive home for a child who would otherwise not have one; there is a ceiling on the amount of the subsidy, in most instances related to the foster care payment scale; nonsubsidized adoption must have been explored first; the subsidy is never intended as full reimbursement for the care of the child, but as a supplement to the family budget to help make adoption possible; periodic reviews of each subsidy plan are required; families adopting with a subsidy must meet all the requirements for any family approved for adoption, with the exception of adequate finances; the thrust of the legislation seems directed toward converting into adoptive placements those situations in which a child is rooted in a satisfactory foster family that has been financially unable to adopt. Watson believes that there are children in every state who can benefit from a subsidy program and that each state should have one.

At the same time Watson took the position that subsidized adoption alone is not going to place all of the children who wait and that it should be only one of the creative approaches that agencies ought to try in their efforts to assure each child a permanent home. Essentially the same position is taken by Andrews in

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* The impact of subsidy upon the adoption of black and/or racially mixed children is currently being studied by the Department of Children and Family Services of the State of Illinois under a grant from the U. S. Children's Bureau.

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her discussion of decision-making that selects subsidized adoption as an alternative to long-term foster care. For her subsidized adoption is one of ten to twelve options available to children in a given community. She emphasizes that not all adoptions, whether traditional, subsidized, or quasi, are successful transplants. She writes as follows:

> In the experience of many practitioners, adoption does not always work out better than long-term foster care; ...There may be situations in which a careful evaluation of a family's circumstances warrants payment of a subsidy after legal adoption but there is also a danger that in the continuing effort to reduce long-term foster care, more will be expected of subsidized adoption than it can offer (42:198, 200).

While it is as yet too early to judge the effect of New York's 24-Month Review Law passed in 1971, the expectation is that it will increase adoption of black children--especially by their black foster parents. It requires a 24-month court review for children in foster care and offers the court four alternatives: (1) directing that foster care be continued; (2) directing that the child be returned to the natural parents; (3) directing that the agency institute a proceeding to legally free the child for adoption; and (4) directing that the child who is legally freee be placed for adoption in the foster family home where he resides or has resided or with any other person or persons. It seems reasonable to assume that adoption of some children under alternatives (3) and (4) might be speeded up or accomplished with subsidy.*

Single Parent Adoptions. Legal adoption by single parents (unmarried, widowed, or divorced) has also been gaining ground, especially for certain groups of hard-to-place children which include minority youngsters. ARENA reports that the 1971 applicants included more single-parent applicants than the 1969 group: in 1969 there were 208 two-parent families, six female-only applicants and one male-only applicant (3.3%); the comparable figures for 1971 were 743, 57 and 5 (7.7%) (102:10). No laws in any state prohibit adoption by single adults. Although there is no central tabulation of the total number of such placements, according to Costin, social agencies in at least ten states and the District of Columbia have placed adoptive children with single adults or have publicized their willingness to accept applications from single adults (51:389). Kadushin reports that "Currently, ...agencies have moved from a stance of automatically rejecting the one-parent applicant to a highly qualified willingness to explore such applications in specific instances" (53:264).

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* In 1971, New York City devised a system of incentive payments "for increasing desired exits from foster care:" the City is paying private agencies $400 for each child discharged home after more than a year in foster care, and $1,000 for each hard-to-place child adopted, "if the number of such adoptions arranged in a year is greater than the agency's previous 3-year average" (Fanshel, David and Eugene B. Shinn, Dollars and Sense in the Foster Care of Children. A Look at Cost Factors. (New York: CWLA, 1972), v.

One of the obvious advantages of single parent adoptions is seen as the meeting of needs of some children now denied adoption, although it cannot be a decisive answer for the hard-to-place child. A generally encouraging report from Los Angeles states that the motive for adoption by single parents "was what they could do for a child rather than what the child could do for them." The author of this report concludes as follows:

> The best plan for one child with special needs may be a single person who is especially qualified to meet those needs. A better plan for another child, who feels secure with his foster parents, may be to encourage the foster parents to keep the child on an agreed-upon permanent basis or to grant them a subsidy so that they can afford to adopt the child (52:107).

The Family Resources Program. A recently discussed Massachusetts program, while in some respects similar to the quasi-adoption approach, nevertheless appears to have certain innovative features which place it in a separate category.

According to Hegarty, "the concept of family resources attempts to bridge the gap between the families who are interested in children and apply to become foster parents, and the families who are interested in children and apply to become adoptive parents" (54:98). The aim is to minimize traditional distinctions between foster and adoptive parents, and to utilize the support of all the agency's resources, unified into an integrated program of service. The concept attempts to provide, writes Hegarty, "more flexible alternatives for children in need of permanent homes that fall short of offering 'family ties established through legal adoption,' but provide more permanence than traditional foster family care, which provides substitute family care for a planned period" (54:98).

The program has been supported by the Massachusetts Foster Parents Association and the state's Open Door Society because these organizations find that it aids in the quest for homes that can provide a sense of permanency for a child regardless of his legal status. Black children have benefited from it.

Transracial Adoption. Although some agencies made some placements across racial lines during the 1950s, this practice came into prominence with the movement of hundreds of Korean children to the United States for placement with white families. As already noted, considerable success in placing nonwhite children with white families was also achieved in the American Indian Adoption Project. Transracial adoption of black children gained momentum by the middle of the 1960s--amounting to what some child welfare workers called "The Little Revolution" (73). Some of the agencies that urged transracial adoption for black children based their position on the following considerations:

> Families who adopt across racial lines will face problems, but it is of far greater importance that this movement toward equality of all children regardless of race is not impeded by agencies. If social workers can contribute to the elimination of the conditions that separate races, they will influence the welfare of countless children (71).

Standards for adoption service promulgated by the CWLA in 1968, reflecting positive reports from the field, had this to say about race:

> Racial background in itself should not determine the selection of a home for a child. It should not be assumed...that difficulties will necessarily arise if adoptive parents and children are of different racial origin (56:35).

Placement of black children in white homes was facilitated through promotion by children's agencies and by associations formed for this purpose by lay persons. The Children's Service Centre of Montreal, Canada, which had pioneered in transracial adoptions since 1951, in 1958 began stressing the placement of black children and those of mixed racial background, having become aware of the growing number of such children who were legally available for adoption and yet living with foster families that would never adopt them (59). In 1962 the Open Door Society, an organization independent of the Centre, was chartered in Montreal. It called the First International Conference on Transracial Adoption in Montreal in June 1969 (60), and a Second such conference in Boston in November 1970.

Similar developments occurred in the United States. Open Door societies, modeled on the Montreal prototype, have been incorporated in many cities. By 1969, there were 47 such organizations. One of their objectives has been to stimulate agencies to recruit white applicants willing to adopt black children. The Third North American Conference on Adoptable Children was sponsored by the Open Door Society of Missouri and was held in April 1972 in that state. Its purpose "was to focus the attention of citizens throughout the continent on the plight of waiting adoptable children, continue the education of the public and professionals about the new trends in adoption, and call for specific, detailed action to increase opportunities for all children to have permanent families" (61).

Other associations of lay persons interested in transracial adoption are exemplified by such organizations as Families for Inter-racial Adoption, started in Boston in 1967 with the objective of educating the black community about adoption, assisting agencies in establishing interracial adoption programs and in interpretation to the public, and sponsoring conferences (75). A Council on Adoptable Children has been formed in Ann Arbor (Michigan); in Detroit (Michigan), Homes for Black Children was initiated in 1969 by the Lutheran Children's Friend Society. A transracial adoptive parents organization, the National Council of Adoptive Parents, is active in Teaneck (New Jersey). A Council on Adoptable Children, which publishes a Newsletter, is operating in Washington, D.C.

Opportunity was organized by the Boys and Girls Aid Society of Oregon in 1967. Since 1968 it has been carrying out annual surveys of children of minority heritage placed for adoption. The following table gives the picture for the years 1968-70:

	1968	1969	1970
Total black children placed	3,122	4,336	6,464
Placements in black families	2,389	2,889	4,190
Placements in white families	733	1,447	2,274
Number of agencies reporting	194	342	427

According to these figures, the percentage of black children placed in white families has continued to increase--from 23% in 1968, to 33 in 1969 and to 35 in 1970. A comparison of the figures for the 228 agencies which reported in both 1969 and 1970 (but not in 1968) showed that in 1970 placements in black families increased by 22%, and in white families by 66%. This, in Opportunity's view, "indicates the ever increasing potential for opening more and more opportunities for black youngsters through interracial adoption" (62). Reacting to the 1969 findings, some researchers have pointed out that it is not possible to take these figures literally: the 1969 estimate was based on a 68% response, no details were given about definitions of "mixed race" and "other nonwhite," and there was the possibility that the same placement could be reported by a state and a local agency, or by a public and a voluntary agency, or im more than one year. But, it was noted, the estimate reinforced a widespread impression that placements of nonwhite children with white parents have increased in recent years (57;76).

The Illinois Department of Children and Family Services sponsored the formation of an Adoption Information Service early in the 1960s. By 1969 it was composed of sixteen metropolitan agencies, some of which accepted for placement children of mixed race (79). Transracial Adoptive Parents is an Illinois organization which provides speakers, arranges television appearances, and furnishes material to the news media--all directed toward increasing and facilitating the adoption of nonwhite children by white families. The Cook County Department of Public Aid (Illinois) began to place black children with white families in 1965. No special recruitment drive was made but the possibility was explored with individual families. In evaluating prospective adoptive parents, requirements especially important included compatible motivation, deep interest in family activities, ability to withstand community pressure, and courage to think and act independently (82).

The lay groups described above stress the challenge and the potential self-fulfillment to be found in adopting minority children. As a result of their activities, many agencies have changed their regulations in many ways to facilitate such adoptions. These families share common characteristics of self-confidence, self-awareness and a "light touch" that free them from tendencies toward ethnocentrism (58). Writing in 1971, Gallagher reported as follows:

> Trans-racial adoption has in recent years become an expanding resource for the placement of children for whom no adoptive parents of their own racial background have been found (74:50).

An estimated 2,600 transracial placements were made in 1971 (43). A 1972 study addressed to discovering "whether couples who wish to adopt transracially are received as warmly as those who express interest in adopting children of their own race," showed "that agency representatives apparently approach the client who wants to adopt transracially in a positive manner" (81).

This does not mean, however, that it is easy to find nonblack adoptive parents for black children. For example, of 36,226 adoptive placements in California between 1964 and 1968, transracial adoptions represented only .005% (63:5). A 1970 study published the responses of 175 nonblack applicants (more than 200 had been queried) as to their willingness to adopt an atypical child, defined as "not a white normal infant." Degrees and types of handicap were described, as were different ethnic categories and age levels. White 56% of the respondents were willing to adopt Spanish-American children and 52%, American Indian youngsters, only 2% indicated willingness to adopt children of black parentage. The author of this study suggests that parents should not be asked a general question concerning willingness but should be questioned about specific types (67).

So far, no evaluative studies on outcomes for black or mixed-raced children adopted by white parents have been reported in the literature. Falk's study, published in 1970, concentrated on comparing Caucasian couples who adopted within their race, and those who adopted transracially. He did report that "transracial parents have experienced little difficulty in their older children's acceptance of the transracially adopted child." These parents reported few incidents of harassment. But "about two-fifths of the transracially adopted children who are in school have experienced some difficulties because of race" (70:88). A few studies of transracial adoptive parents have appeared. In 1963, Ethel Roskies, a Canadian psychologist, made a study of 100 part black children placed in white adoptive homes over a six-year period by the Children's Service Centre of Montreal. She found that the couples were far above average in education, income and occupation. Two-thirds of them were professionals, 65% had graduate degrees and most had several children of their own. They were "detached" from their community and from their own parents with whom most had little contact. She found that one partner had changed religion in a high proportion of cases. Wives rarely worked outside the home and the parents were "deeply involved in the raising of their children..." (64).

In 1965, Fricke described twenty transracial adoptive parents as follows:

> White couples who have adopted Negro children cannot be categorized on the basis of such factors as education, income, intelligence, sophistication, or geographic location. Nor are they...'causey' people. Their motivation... is based on love for a child, not an involvement with racial problems. ...They are tremendously secure people who do not need constant community or larger family support to survive (73:96).

In 1969, Priddy and Kirgan reported on 24 transracial adoptive couples. They found that half of the husbands had post-graduate education as did 21% of the wives, and that 67% of the husbands were in professional occupations. Three-fourths of the wives were not working. Of the 21% who worked, all were in professional occupations. But the incomes of slightly more than half of the parents were under $10,000 annually. Priddy and Kirgan felt that these couples "are highly individualistic in their attitudes and ideas and are little concerned about what family or friends think about what they do" (63:13). The fact that 70% of the couples said that they saw their own parents infrequently or never, coincided with the Roskies and Fricke findings. However, in contrast to Fricke's statement that the transracial adoption program emerged within the "room-for-one-more" family, over half of the couples studied by Priddy and Kirgan were beginning their families by adopting mixed racial children rather than adding to their families (63:8).

A study of transracial adoptions in Minnesota by St. Denis found that adoptive white parents of nonwhite children are "highly eligible" adopters according to the standards followed by the agencies at the time they were studied (65). This supports the Roskies and the Priddy-Kirgan findings.

At the same time, dispute over the desirability of placing black children with white families has also gained momentum. Speaking at the Second International Conference on Transracial Adoption in 1970, Gallagher noted the emergence of two conflicting trends: on the one hand, a growing acceptance by white couples seeking to adopt black children; and on the other, opposition of some blacks to the placment of black children with white famlies. This opposition appears to exist in different degrees. Fischer describes a successful program for recruiting black adoptive parents, started in 1969 with a black program director and two black social workers out of five. Only one placement was made with a white family. Fischer believes that his program "can recruit enough black families in Detroit to keep twenty social workers busy" and he pleads for more adequate funding and staff to attain this goal (72). A social worker in Nashville, Tennessee, writes that agencies should "stop fooling themselves that there is something healthy about white parenthood for black children and...refocus their energies toward actively recruiting for black parents" (66:159). Roger Kahn of the National Urban League is quite harsh in his criticism of agency services in black adoptions, including staffing, and is deeply concerned about black identity for children raised in white families. He makes the following statement:

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> Virtually all the people on the boards and staffs of adoption agencies are white. They do not involve black people in policy formulation or in day-to-day programming. They do not know the black community; they insist on doing 'business as usual' and then are surprized when they find they cannot recruit black families for adoption. They do not reach the black community because they do not know it, and they perpetuate their ignorance because, actually, they do not care about placing black children (77:160).

According to Chestang, transracial adoption "produces a number of professsional questions with political and racial overtones" (68:100). He explains that in the black community a frequently posed question, and a valid one as far as he is concerned is: "Why would a white family, given the low status and endemic negative attitude toward blacks, want to adopt a black child?" He thinks that "the suspicion underlying the question stems from fears of cultural 'genocide' on the one hand and concern for the child's identity on the other." The danger to the child is that he will lose contact with the black experience and is likely to experience an identity crisis throughout his life--he will be fragmented. The fact that the child is defined as an alien in the white community and a traitor in the black community places him under such severe stress that he may not be able to withstand the tension. The white family that adopts a black child is likewise subjected to inordinate stress since, Chestang maintains, "the negative societal traits attributed to blacks are likely to be inherited by the adoptive family, thereby subjecting the family to insults, racial slurs, and ostracism." Chestang does not advocate abandonment of transracial adoption--"these children, if they survive, have the potential for becoming catalysts for society in general"--but he does believe that in our society only black families can assure an environment in which there is optimal opportunity for growth, development, and identification.

A completely negative position was adopted by the National Association of Black Social Workers at its conference in April 1972: "We have taken the position that black children should be placed only with black families whether in foster care or for adoption. Black children belong, physically, psychologically and culturally in black families in order that they receive the total sense of themselves and develop a sound projection of their future. ...We have committed ourselves to go back to our communities and work to end this particular form of genocide..." Apparently, this position has been accepted by black child welfare administrators. In July 1972 they noted that black children placed in foster care and adoption need black homes in order to obtain the necessary black identification and black experience, that these necessities cannot be taught by white parents, and that black experience cannot be learned outside of a black family. Only through genuine black experience can the black child gain security for himself and solidarity with his race. Only in this way can he avoid feelings of rejection by his own race or preoccupying himself with efforts to make up for deserting his race. A black child placed across racial lines is, in the view of these administrators, hindered from the start with racial problems which began generations ago.

In opposition, we have the attitudes and experience of white adoptive parents. Writing in response to the Chestang article, one adoptive mother considers him "either prejudiced or poorly informed." She notes that "If any black blood means black child, his assumptions are especially appalling. Some tan-skinned children are as much black as white." And she asks "Is it obvious where they should be placed?" She also maintains that her "three teen-age biracial children share my feeling that... 'rejection and condemnation by friends and family' is totally unreal in our experience." A second mother believes that Chestang "seriously underrates white adoptive parents in a manner heavily suggestive of racism;" that he "is considerably dated in his observations. ...For instance, he never mentions that white parents of black children throughout the country have organized into groups for several purposes, among which are education and that he fails to mention changing attitudes of both whites and blacks with respect to biracial adoption" (78).

In 1971 another white parent of nonwhite children, David Anderson, published an entire book on this subject (55). Among many of his observations, the following appear especially cogent:

> This, it seems to us, is the central point: whether a child has a true family or not is a lot more important than either the racism of some whites or the militance of some blacks. ...We agree that a strong sense of pride in black identity is important for all black people in America today, including our black children. But we do not believe that black separatism is essential to strong black consciousness (178).

For Mr. Anderson, in transracial adoption, the fact of adoption is more important than its transracial character. He quotes with approval the statement of Clayton Hagen that "...interracial adoption is not a matter of a white couple adopting a black child and attempting to give him an identity which is different from theirs. It is a matter of people removing the walls, the artificial lines, which separate people from each other." He hopes that "if families may flourish without racism, so, inevitably, may societies."

In a recent statement, the committee on adoption and dependent care of the American Academy of Pediatrics warms that the primary goal of adoption--the welfare of the child--should not be overlooked "in our haste to get black children out of institutions and into adoptive homes." The committee goes on to say the following:

> ...transracial adoption must allow the child a chance to grow up confident that, though he was not born into this

> family and may have external features that are different--as well as a different cultural heritage--he is loved and accepted for what he is, an individual. ...Unless we adhere to this goal, rather than to a social, humanitarian, psychologic, or other ego-strengthening motive of the parents, the child will surely be sacrificed to the popular movement of his day. ...Although teaching the child black history and black culture and emphasizing the contributions of black people is important, the attitudes of the child's daily contacts will probably have more bearing on his adjustment than pictures of nationally known blacks hanging in his room (80).

Given the controversial nature of transracial adoption--amounting indeed to a "Little Revolution" in child welfare--it was to be expected that the CWLA would revise its 1968 revised standards. In 1973, while affirming transracial adoption as "one means of achieving needed permanence for some children," the newly developed standards assert that, "other things being equal in today's social climate, it is preferable to place a child in a family of his own racial background." The standards focus on the responsibility of agencies and communities to "expand their own efforts to recruit more adoptive parents from minority groups through the development of different approaches." The background statement notes that the "insidiously racist character" of societal forces must be taken into account when transracial adoption is considered. Parents of a race other than that of the child "must be prepared to help the child and themselves with issues of cultural heritage and identity." Agencies have a responsibility to make help available to adoptive parents in this area (69:3).

Agency Policies and Practices. Adoption of black children in the decade of the 1960s was undoubtedly facilitated by changes in agency policies and practices that affected all adoptions. These changes swept away a considerable amount of deadwood in almost every aspect of practice. The adoption process was shortened. Requirements were modified in the direction of more flexibility regarding the age of the applicant, amount of fee or method of payment, placement of children with couples who have other adopted children or children of their own, number of years applicants have been married, use of homes in which the adoptive mother works, or accepting this after an "adjustment period," "matching" of religion, omitting or being more flexible with regard to proof of infertility (89). Intensive and critical scrutiny was also given to regulations governing income and housing. Although revisions of policy varied from agency to agency and community to community, overall the movement was away from rigidly adhered-to requirements, and toward greater flexibility, while every effort was made not to compromise what was considered essential (87).

A broadened definition of adoptability was developed: the primary purpose of adoption was seen as service that should help children who would not otherwise have a home of their own and who can benefit by family life. Practices were changed from considering applicants as resources for children to helping couples qualify for adoptive parenthood where possible (71;84). Agencies developed "a positive philosophy" in regard to counseling with adoptive parents. This meant adapting the adoption study process to meet the interests of the clients: to make it "diagnostic, preparatory, and parent-educational." The stress was on sharing responsibility in planning for adoptive placement, "although each party must concur in the plan for placement." The effort was directed toward planning "a wide range of activities of an individual or group nature that improves and increases the couple's potentiality for parenthood" (90:156). Families were "screened in" (88). Agencies introduced administrative innovations designed to change their image to a less forbidding and a more welcoming one (86), and redoubled their efforts to cope more effectively with such deterrents to adoption as fuzzy legislation in regard to termination of parental rights and lack of service to unmarried mothers (85:6).

Certain findings, however, pointed to the need for additional, special adjustments and changes in policy and practice that affected adoption of black children specifically. Fanshel's 1957 study (5) determined that adoption was completed by only 18.8% of black applicants as compared with 40.4% of white applicants, substantiating the possibility that casework methods applicable to whites might require modifications in working with blacks. He found that the attitudes of adoption agencies and the white caseworkers' lack of knowledge of blacks were serious deterrents to the adoption of black children. Many black social workers pointed out that black families were not able to relate to long-existing agencies which were white dominated, white staffed, white oriented, set up for white couples. Others among them noted that it was not overt racism--though that was still present--that was the limiting factor in finding black homes, but rather the difficulty of achieving real communication between white workers and black applicants, and more basically, the inability of many agencies and workers to deal with black families in the context of their unique history.

That these kinds of deterrents are not easily overcome is suggested by a 1966 study which related workers' perceptions of applicants to final outcomes. It was based on reactions of staff and applicants in eight agencies: 87 workers and 398 applicant couples who initiated their applications in 1963. Eighty-eight% of the couples were white, 11% black, 1% asian-american, and less than 1%, racially mixed. Outcomes for black and white couples were as follows: 55% of the white and 49% of the black couples had been accepted; of those judged to be good prospects who withdrew, 11% were white and 24% were black; of those judged to be poor prospects who withdrew, 6% were white and 5% were black; 27% of the white and 22% of the black couples had been rejected. This finding restated the earlier one: that good black prospects continue to be easily lost (83).

SOCIAL FORCES THAT INFLUENCE BLACK ADOPTION

Without minimizing the primordial importance for agency policies and practices to be further and vigorously modified in order to become more responsive to the need of black children for good adoptive homes, is it realistic to expect that the rate of nonwhite adoptions can be increased so substantially as to provide a permanent home for every child now waiting? Studies dealing with this question directly and indirectly, have produced answers that do not invariably agree either in substance or implications.

In 1962, investigators interviewed black couples in Baltimore and Washington to learn about their attitudes toward adoption (95). It was found that the respondents were informed about agency resources--they thought of agencies as the prime source of adoptive children, and expressed no great fear of involvement with them. The reasons for the lack of motivation to adopt seemed to be in the values of the successful urban black. A discussant of this study attributed the failure of middle-class blacks to adopt to socioeconomic factors as well as to the general insecurity engendered by the fact of their being blacks in a rejecting society. It was his conclusion that the adoption gap among blacks would be bridged only when the other gaps--housing, employment, education, health, and other aspects of social welfare standing in the way of total family security--had been bridged. But a 1964 publication challenged the assumption that as the number of black middle class families increases, the number of black adoptive families will also increase. The author noted that although "the upward climb from lower- to middle-class status (had) been achieved by a substantial number of Negroes in the period from 1950 to 1960," black middle-class continued not to be "as eager as had been assumed to become involved in the adoption process" (99:482). He suggested that in view of the situation of many children, and the dwindling resource of foster homes, child welfare ought to reconsider the role of the institution for child rearing.

A 1962 study which investigated cultural factors in black adoptive parenthood concluded that black adoptive parents can be expected to enjoy relatively high social status among nonwhites, and relatively low marital stability as compared with whites. It suggested that adoption standards regarding employment of the mother as well as infertility may have to be relaxed. Girls may be easier to place than boys, and color may be a factor (101).

One of the most penetrating analyses appeared in 1965. It revealed that when black families are compared with white families of the same income and educational and social status, the percentage of black families that adopted is as high as that of white families. Group differences in the availability of adoption relate to income and family composition rather than to differences in attitudes toward adopting, and blacks are not less interested in adopting than are whites among those in a position to adopt, nor are they less informed about adoption. The authors concluded as follows:

> It is not necessary to wait for major changes in socioeconomic conditions before attempting to increase the number of Negro adoptive homes ...However, it is probably unrealistic to expect a major increase in Negro adoption rates until major changes in socioeconomic conditions are well under way (98).

A similar position is voiced by Kadushin writing in 1967. Using 1962 data, he shows that in that year 11% of nonrelative adoptions in the United States were of nonwhite children, and 11.6% of the nation was nonwhite. Consequently, he notes, the problem is not one of lagging demand but of disproportionate supply because the rate of illegitimate nonwhite births is very much higher than the percentage of nonwhites in the country. He explained that if the child caring agencies were able to increase substantially the rate of nonwhite adoptions, and this become generally known, "there would in all likelihood be an increase in the percentage of nonwhite unmarried mothers who would offer the child for adoption. This, in fact, has been the effect of successful recruiting programs in some areas. Thus increased supply is likely to balance out increased demand and the adoption agencies would still be faced with the same problem" (93:489, 491).

On the basis of two series of studies concerning the urban middle-class black in relation to adoption, published in 1966, Fowler concluded as follows:

> For quite understandable socio-psychological reasons, relatively few economically secure, childless Negro couples appear to be interested in adopting eligible children at the present time. Seeking an emotionally secure place amid discriminatory practices, many of them had little energy left for the risks of parenthood. Thus, both series of studies imply that current efforts to persuade childless, middle-class Negro couples to adopt are not likely to be easily or massively successful in the immediate future (96:524).

The research findings reviewed above suggest at least two sets of reasons why the black adoption rate is no higher than it is. One emphasizes the economic and social disadvantages of the black group as deterrents in this context and implies that when these disadvantages are removed, the adoption possibilities will improve. The other emphasizes the attitudinal components, as they are shaped by cultural and psychosocial factors, and implies that the removal of economic and social deterrents will not necessarily improve adoption possibilities. Implicit in both sets of reasons is the indication that black couples place such a high value on reaching and maintaining middle class status that they will not do anything that might jeopardize the attainment of this goal: specifically, while in movement toward middle class status or when this status is still new and fragile, black couples are not likely to be interested in adoption.

Both directly and indirectly, these studies emphasize certain aspects of the social circumstances of black children and black families which exert a powerful influence on adoption. One is that the majority of adopted children are illegitimate. (In 1969, 89% of the children placed in adoption with non-relatives were illegitimate). The percentage of illegitimate black children available for adoption is larger than that of white children. During the years 1960-68, the illegitimacy rate (illegitimate births per 1,000 unmarried woman 15 to 44 years old) rose from 21.6 to 24.4, but for white women it was 13.2 in 1968 as compared to 86.6 for black and other races in that year. Nevertheless, this is a narrowed differential than what prevailed earlier (94:113). In recent years, the rate of nonwhite illegitimate births has been decreasing while the white rate has been slowly increasing, but even if this trend continues it will take many years to alter the fact that "illegitimacy is more prevalent among Negroes than among any other ethnic group in America" (91:133). Garland notes that from a social welfare perspective, illegitimacy is a special minority group problem in urban areas (97:81). Social problems that appear to exist in localities where the illegitimacy rates are high are lack of education, few employment opportunities, poor housing, inadequate recreation, and low income. It should also be kept in mind that although fertility rates--live births per 1,000 women age 15 to 44--are generally declining, the rate among nonwhites exceeds that of whites: 115 as compared with 82 in 1968. But while at lower levels of education nonwhite women bear more children than white women, at higher levels they bear fewer than white women.

Another social characteristic that influences a child's becoming available for adoption is whether or not he comes from an intact family. In 1971, 71.1% of nonwhite families were headed by a man; the proportion headed by women had been rising since 1950, from 17.6% in that year to 28.9% in 1971. Among white families, women have been household heads at a fairly constant rate of about 9%, although this rate went up from 9.1 in 1970 to 9.4 in 1971. In 1970, divorce and separation were the explanation for 48% of the nonwhite female family heads and 37% of the white. Black families headed by a woman accounted for about half of the increase in the number of black families since 1960. Also, the percent change, 1960-70, experienced by those families headed by a woman was greater than that for husband-wife families. Fewer than seven of every ten nonwhite children lived with both parents in 1970; this was true for more than nine of every ten white children. But at the middle and upper income levels, the percentage of black children living with both parents approaches that of white children.

The extent of dependency among families may also influence children becoming available for adoption. By 1961, black families constituted 44% of all families receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children. Black families being larger, 1,112,106 children in the program in 1961 were black; 1,165,308 children were white. One of very ten white children reaching the age of eighteen in 1963--and six out of every ten nonwhite children--had at some time in their life been supported by this program. Of the white children being helped, 72% lived in rural, nonfarm areas; 75% of the black children aided were in central cities.* Nation-wide, two-thirds of all dependent children have been abandoned by their fathers (100). That dependency patterns are not easily altered is underscored by the fact that at present, 43% of the over two million families who receive both cash assistance and social services under the AFDC program are black. The great majority are without fathers, and their mothers are handicapped by deficient education and limited job skills and work experience. Both parents and children are younger today, on the average, than those who received help in previous years (92).

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* By 1970, blacks constituted 21% of the population in central cities, 28% of the population in cities of two or more million persons, and only 5% of the population in suburban areas.

An aspect that must be taken into consideration in adoption potential is the lower economic position of nonwhites. Median family income of black and other races, in 1970, was about $6,520, about 50% higher than in 1960. The ratio of black and other races to white median family income was 64% in 1970, a significant increase from the 53% ratio in 1961-63. The increase was preceded by a decade in which there had been no significant narrowing of the income differentials. In 1960, 9% of all families of black and other races had incomes whose purchasing power exceeded $10,000 in 1969 prices; by 1970, this percentage rose to 24. The increases for whites rose from 27% in 1960 to 49% in 1969. Husband-wife families, both black and white, tend to have incomes approximately double those of families headed by a woman. The median income in 1969 of black families headed by women was $3,340, compared with $5,500 for white families headed by women. The number of whites and blacks below the low income level rose between 1969 and 1970, but in 1970 was considerably below that of a decade before. About one-third of the black population and 10% of the white population were in the low income group in 1970, compared with more than half of the black population and 18% of the white, ten years before. A large proportion of the families with low incomes was headed by people at work. In 1969, six out of every ten black men and five out of every ten white men, who were heads of low income families were employed. The majority of people below the low income level did not receive public assistance or welfare payments in 1969. In that year, about 45% of the low income black families and about 21% of low income white families received public assistance (94:114).

THE DECADE OF THE 1970s

Quantitative Aspects. What have been the quantitative results of the strenuous and diversified efforts in the 1960s to improve and increase adoption for black children?

In 1970, 21,000 of the 175,000 children adopted were black or belonged to other minority races. These children represented 12% of all adoptions, 12% of nonrelative adoptions, and 12% of relative adoptions. In relation to all adoptions, this represented a rise of 3% since 1957; to all nonrelative adoptions, a rise of 4% since 1957; to relative adoptions, a rise of 2% since 1957 (104:2, Table 11). Thus, some progress has been made, but not enough to change the situation appreciably for nonwhite children. Of the 21,000 nonwhite adopted children, 14,600 were black--less than 8.4% of all adopted children. This slow progress, especially for black children, is highlighted by additional data.

Grow and Smith reported that in 1969-70 there was an 11% decrease in white children accepted for adoption services, in contrast to an 18% increase in

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nonwhite children accepted. For this period, there was an increase of 2% in white and an 18% increase in nonwhite applications. Nevertheless, these authors noted, during 1969-70 the black child had a smaller chance of being adopted: 90% of all adoptions were white, although 60% of children born out of wedlock were nonwhite (109).

Data for the first six months of 1971 from 50 voluntary and eight public CWLA member agencies indicated a 25% decrease from the number accepted for adoption in 1970. However, the decrease is accounted for solely by a drop of 32% in the number of white children which occurred in both public and voluntary agencies. The number of nonwhite children accepted for adoption increased 11%, with all of the rise occurring in public agencies. This may indicate that as time goes on, a greater proportion of black natural parents will feel free to offer their children for adoption. There were 148 white homes approved per 100 white children accepted for adoption and 71 nonwhite homes approved per 100 nonwhite children--a large increase from 1970 to 1971: about 40% in both public and voluntary agencies (107:510).

Yet, it is undeniable that the scope of the problem of black children waiting for adoption is extensive and serious in many communities. For example, the District of Columbia General Hospital (the municipal hospital in Washington, D.C.) noted a steady rise in the number of well infants as "boarders"--from 130 in 1963 to 154 in 1969. A study attributed this "problem of 'infant boarders' to the fact that in Washington, where most of the abandoned children are black..few adoptive homes for black children are available through social service channels and foster homes are scarce because of the inadequacy of payments for care... Seven of the ten other hospitals (in other cities) surveyed reported infant boarder problems similar to D.C. General's" (108:77).

Further insight into what can be expected in the 1970s is furnished by a recent ARENA analysis. There has taken place a marked change in the racial distribution of children from 1969 to 1971. The proportion of white children was a little over a fourth in both years, but the proportion of children of black or black-white parentage jumped from 17 to 43%--again, an indication perhaps that more black parents are requesting adoption for their children. Although some of the white applicants would not accept a white child, and many would consider children of other races, the racial backgrounds acceptable were not those most common among the children registered. Over half the families would consider Indian or part-Indian children, and substantial proportions would accept Asian-Americans, Chicano, Puerto Rican or Alaskan children. However, only 18 of the 1969 families (8%) and 150 of the 1971 families (19%) would consider children of black or part-black parentage. It is true that the supply of families for black children came closer to the number of black children registered in 1971 than in 1969, but there were still not enough, even if no other factors had to be taken into account in arranging placement. The analysts said that their figures:

> show dramatically the difficulty of placement of the child of all black background. Only 17 percent of the black children in the 1969 group were placed within six months, as compared with 79 percent of the Indian children and 50 percent of the white children. The children of white-black parentage did not fare much better, with only 32 percent placed early. In 1971 the picture improved slightly for the all-black child, and very markedly for the child of white-black parentage of whom 68 percent were placed early. (Black children placed within six months in 1971 constituted 24 percent) (102:11).

The analysts also noted the following:

> The impediments of age, race, slow mental development and physical handicap do not, of course, necessarily come singly. We did not analyze further the overlap in these characteristics, but it seems safe to assume that the more of these characteristics a child has, the more difficult he is to place. Thus the older black child, the black handicapped child, the older child with slow mental development are among those for whom it is most difficult to find a suitable adoptive home (102:13).

ARENA found that about 90% of the adoptive applicants in both 1969 and 1971 were white. The 1971 group included appreciably more black applicants than the 1969 group, but the number in 1971 was still very small in relation to the number of black children registered.

Agency Efforts to Improve and Increase Adoption for Black Children. Agencies are continuing to try to find out why some applicants who are interested in adopting a black child, withdraw from contact with the agency without providing an opportunity to assess their capacity to be parents. The understanding gained so far is not too encouraging in terms of decreasing this type of drop-outs: "If an agency is willing to provide experimentation in service, much encouragement, and endless patience, it may be possible to keep some applicants who currently withdraw and to provide some additional homes for children who need them" (112).

Agencies are continuing their efforts to eliminate stereotyped attitudes in the community that complicate recruitment of adoptive homes for black children; namely, the notions that there is no problem because "the black culture does not permit the giving away of children" that "the unwed mother and her illegitimate child are easily assimilated into the family in the black community," that figures on related adoptions show that large numbers of black children are being adopted." To some extent, these attitudes reflect reality. For example, in 1970, 10,700 nonwhite children were adopted by unrelated petitioners and 10,300 by related petitioners. That some, at least, black natural parents are hostile toward the idea of adoption and that discussions concerning adoption do not encourage them to undertake adoption counseling is documented (111:286). But this is only part of the reality. While an increasing number of black natural parents are giving up their children for adoption, many black unmarried mothers do not do so because they do not think that adoptive homes will be found for their babies. In Detroit, Michigan, for example, in 1968 of 6,061 illegitimate black babies born, only 4% were placed for adoption (of 2,781 illegitimate white babies born, 52.8% were placed for adoption).

Collaborative arrangements and cooperative planning is being utilized by agencies to streamline operations, fill in gaps, and reinforce each other's work (110).

Changes in attitudes on the part of agencies' casework staffs are being encouraged and apparently, are making headway. Some agencies see this change as follows:

> ...one in which each staff member is committed to scrutinize every concept, policy or practice that might impede the placement of a child. Concomitantly there is the conviction that the vast majority of people who apply to an adoption agency have inherent strengths for parenthood. Concerted effort has been made to discard individual value systems and to look at the prospective parents from the standpoint of what a child would derive from that particular family constellation (106:386).

More and more, agencies are dealing with the awareness that societal and racial pressures have brought new urgency to the question of relationships between white workers and the black children they supervise. More and more, they are concerned to understand the meaning of Black Power, some of the sources of problems in attitudes, and reasons for inadequate communication (105).

An "experience survey" published in 1971, had consulted, "on a systematic basis, people with experience in adoptions and people with a knowledge of the communities from whom more adoptive parents could be recruited" (103:i). It was hoped that such a survey could define some crucial elements that must be taken into account in a successful recruitment program. The major findings included the following: there was a division of opinion as to whether enough adoptive homes can be found for all black children needing them; but there was a strong consensus that the number can be increased substantially, if the target group is broadened, and if a variety of recuitment methods is used in a coordinated manner by a variety of collaborating organizations and groups, if recruitment is planned and sustained over long period of time--conditions quite similar to those suggested by projects mounted in the 1950s. The chief reasons for adoption revealed by the survey confirmed what was already known. The same was largely true about what was learned concerning deterrents to adoption; namely, image, policies, and practices of child-placing agencies; economic insecurity of black families, plus the fact that many are already caring for children of relatives; lack of public information about the magnitude and urgency of the need; alleged threat to the "manhood" of the potential adoptive father; concern about the possible heredity of the child; and legal complications. As far as agency practices are concerned, the survey confirmed that more and more agencies either have or are moving away from the rigid standards of former days which are not realistic for many potential black applicants.

The newly issued CWLA standards urge "greater employment of minority group staff; closer coordination and consultation with the leadership of minority groups and citizen groups in business, labor, religious and civic circles, for special appeals; in-service training of staff to heighten their sensitivity and appreciation of the culture, needs and perspective of minority groups; use of various mass media to reach prospective adoptive parents in minority groups; and realistic clarification of the services and procedures required for adoption. Agencies should make use of local, state and national exchanges where homes are not available locally" (69:3).

CONCLUSIONS

The preceding review of the literature leads us to believe that the problem of finding good adoptive homes for all black children who need them is not likely to be solved in the current decade.

If it is assumed that the black illegitimacy rate will continue to decrease slowly throughout the 1970s--an assumption suggested by the fact that family planning and abortion services are becoming more widely available and accessible to black people--it seems equally reasonable to assume on the basis of developments in the past decade that relatively more of the black natural parents will offer their children for adoption. For some time to come, therefore, the agencies will continue to face an appreciably greater supply than demand. Transracial adoption, even if it were not controversial, could absorb only a miniscule proportion of waiting black children. The fact that it is controversial and that the newly developed CWLA standards in regard to it do not support it unequivocally will probably have a chilling effect on its expansion.

The movement toward achieving balance between supply and demand in regard to black infants will probably gather momentum in this decade gradually, as the socio-economic status of black people continues to improve, leading to greater equality and to a more secure and positive psychological outlook. Already, reports from different parts of the country indicate that it is not as difficult to find adoptive homes for black infants as it used to be. Consequently, there is justification for speculating that the problem of the "waiting" black infant may disappear toward the end of this decade.

But in view of these authors, this is not likely to happen for older black children nor for the handicapped and the mentally "slow" black youngsters who are free for adoption but who are now living in foster homes and institutions.

That the majority of these 40,000 black and racially mixed children (a conservative estimate: the number may be as high as 80,000) who are now waiting to be adopted are older is strongly suggested by available data. For example, in California half of the children in foster care in 1972 were over ten years of age (114). A 1971 Illinois study revealed that 59% of the children who had been in foster care 15 months or longer were over nine years of age, with the single largest group (26.6%) being between thirteen and sixteen. Furthermore, 58% of these "long-term" children were black (113:5-6). In Minnesota in 1970-71, among the white children under state guardianship, 30% had been committed less than two years earlier, but this held for only 14% of the nonwhite (115).

Since research indicates that a significantly higher percentage of hard-to-place children achieve successful adoption in the homes in which they were initially placed for long-term foster care (116), some child welfare workers expect black adoption prospects to improve as a result of such legislation as the New York 24-month Review Law. That such improvements may occur, if accompanied by a more widespread and positive use of subsidy, is possible. But the Illinois study noted that adoption was a goal for only one-quarter of the black children in foster care; many of them were too old and/or had lived in a number of foster homes, primarily as a result of requents by their foster parents that they be removed--and Illinois is one of the states with a subsidized adoption law, and a leader in developing this resource. This suggests that to expect a dramatic rise in adoption by converting foster homes into adoptive homes may not be realistic. The question also rises as to whether it is desirable to push for wholesale conversion without reliable research data that would show the comparative merits of planned long-term foster family care and subsidized adoption in relation to children's growth and development.

Agency efforts to increase and improve adoption for black children, however genuine and persistent, take place within larger societal forces, social, economic and psychological, which exert a powerful influence and which are not subject to agency control. Some of the hard facts produced by these forces--in addition to the continuing insufficient number of black persons seeking children to adopt in relation to the number of black children available for adoption and the continuing high illegitimacy rates among blacks--are the slow and uneven nature of the decline in poverty and the failure of the indexes of family breakdown and dependency to subside. All this is aggravated by spreading megalopoli, social upheavals, a deteriorating environment, and institutional racism that is still of destructive proportions. These hard social facts lessen the hope that the percentage of black families adopting children will increase many-fold in the foreseeable future, enough to take in every child who can use adoption.

Writing in 1965, one of the authors of this review prognosticated about the future in adoption in the following words: "(1) Agency adoption is here to stay; (2) Adoption will not be available for all children who need it; and (3) Adoption will not be the only nor the best solution for all neglected and dependent children" (117). It seems to us that this view is still valid for the decade of the 1970s.

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APPENDIX B

IMPLEMENTING THE CHILD WELFARE ORGANIZATION MODEL

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APPENDIX B

IMPLEMENTING THE CHILD WELFARE ORGANIZATION MODEL

SECTION A: EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES

In developing Chapters 8 and 9 it became clear that the team service concept necessitates some new considerations in the management of social service delivery systems.

With the introduction of varying and multi-skilled manpower in a team organization, the social welfare administrator and the team leader both are faced with increased requirements for assuring the effective use of the skills and working time of team members.

The team concept involves the need for close supervision over work distribution and assignments to individual team members so that all are productively occupied within their individual skill areas, and so that their work is coordinated.

To illustrate how teams, and agencies using teams, may manage productive time and effort for maximum effectiveness and optimum utilization of resources, a comprehensive review of selected management techniques and practices is presented in this Appendix.

To relate the discussions of the various management techniques to child welfare team delivery of services, a number of specific examples are included, showing how these techniques may be applied in a child welfare organization, and to child welfare teams providing direct services. These examples include:

1. A "Program Document" (Section B), indicating how agency plans, policies, objectives and goals are developed for management control, coordination and budget development.

2. An agency "Management Structure" (Section C), illustrating a method of organizing agency and team effort into functional areas which can be

used to relate agency and team accomplishments to the resources made available to accomplish the agency missions.

3. Procedures and formats for development of agency programs and budgets (Section D) to assure coordination and proper development of manpower, contractual services, supply and other resource requirements.

4. Procedures and formats for developing agency and team feedback information systems for day-to-day control of operations (Section E).

5. Other discussions in Section E outline in summary fashion a number of effective management techniques, such as Systems Analysis and Cost Analysis, for comprehensive control over the complex operations representative of social welfare work.

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SECTION B: THE "PROGRAM DOCUMENT"

In Chapter 8, the concept of the "Program Document" was outlined. The example "Program Document" following, provides an appreciation of its general make-up and content.

Once the approved operating budget and final version of the program document have been prepared, these become the primary management directives authorizing operations to be carried out within the policies and guidance provided. It should be made clear, however, that program documents and budgets are continuous and changeable devices, and that these are always geared to meet changing conditions. Thus, an emergency situation requiring changes in plans and operations can be met by issuance by management of an interim directive which takes temporary precedence over prior guidance in the program document. For such events, program document processes normally are included in the administrative instructions which require appropriate changes to be made at the earliest possible date following the emergency action. These changes are issued as changed pages or as additional guidance within the program document.

It becomes important to management, then, to assure a system of controls over issuance of emergency or other interim directives so that such changes may be coordinated and incorporated into the program document. By such means, the program document remains viable and current, and can be used as the single base for continuing control.

The program document provides the agency director with a single, current, accurate and comprehensive plan of action to which he may refer daily in evaluating and controlling operations of subordinate activities. The program document gathers together a coordinated picture of planned actions so that the agency director may devote his time to major problems and trends of operations.

The program document provides subordinate activity directors (team leaders, key staff personnel, etc.) with on-going, current guidance, and permits them to carry on their activities within a recognized plan. The agency director or manager benefits by this delegation of responsibility for day-to-day operations, since he may devote his attention to areas of interest, to major problems, and to long-range planning on a "management-by-exception" basis.

The "management-by-exception" process is a by-product of the program document, but it is a primary consideration in the management system contemplated in this study. By releasing day-to-day operations to subordinates under the guidelines provided in the program document, the agency director may review operations by looking for actions which do not fall within the policies, guidelines, goals or objectives prescribed in the program document. The agency director concentrates his attention on exceptions to normal operations--

substandard performance, complaints of poor service, excessive rates of usage of funds or other resources.

How the manager establishes systems which become his "eyes and ears" in the management process is described in greater detail under the subject of "Feedback" or "Management Information Systems". The data and information in the program document become the manager's base of comparison of progress of operations within his plan of action. Anything falling outside the range of expected performance becomes a "red flag" indicating that this is an area to which he must devote attention.

The example "Program Document" following, is illustrative primarily of the concept. The format, content and organization of the document are suggestive only--in practice, the flexibility of this type of planning document is a major advantage.

One further consideration is the practice in larger organizations of developing the program document as a basic on-going five or ten year (future years) program document, with general plans and policies applying to long-range periods, and detailed fiscal year schedules applying to the current operational requirement.

(AN EXAMPLE PROGRAM DOCUMENT)

"XYZ COUNTY" CHILD WELFARE DIVISION MODEL

PROGRAM DOCUMENT

Fiscal Year 1973

1 July 1972 - 30 June 1973

NOTES:

1. This example Program Document is for illustrative purposes only. All data are brief, arbitrary examples to illustrate basic principles and formats. An actual program document necessarily would be far more specific and detailed. The purpose is to indicate the type of content and to generate ideas and thinking in terms of the program-budget concept.

2. Before studying this program document, it is suggested that the reader first review the Management Structure (Section C), since much material in the program document is based upon it.

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FY 1973 PROGRAM DOCUMENT

A. GENERAL BACKGROUND AND CONTENT

1. This program is based upon the following background applicable to the XYS County Child Welfare Division and its scope of operations:

a. The XYZ County Child Welfare Division is a major Division within the XYZ County Social Services Agency.

(1) Missions, policies, goals and objectives of the Division appear in applicable portions of this Program Document.

(2) Organization of the Division appears in the XYZ County Child Welfare Division Organization Manual.

b. The FY 1973 Programs of the Division are based upon the current organizational structure, workload projections, and manpower authorizations shown in appropriate schedules in this document, and upon the FY 1973 Budget Guidance appearing in the Budget Document appended to and made a part of this Operating Program Document.

2. Policies, goals and objectives for the FY 1973 operations appear in appropriate sections of this program document.

3. Specific program guidance appears in appropriate sections of this document as applicable to each organizational element, sub-activity and activity as defined in the XYZ County Management Structure.

B. ADMINISTRATIVE INSTRUCTIONS

1. This program document is the governing management plan of action for FY 1973 operations of the XYZ County Child Welfare Division.

a. No operations or actions will be undertaken or initiated that are not in compliance or in consonance with the guidance and instructions in this document.

b. When changes in plans, operations, budgets, policies, goals, objectives or other guidance appearing in this document are necessary, such changes will be issued in the form of written, numbered, Division (temporary) Memoranda, followed within 3 working days by a formal published change to this program document. Each such change memorandum will clearly identify the pages, paragraphs and schedules of this program document which are changed or otherwise affected by the content of the memorandum. The published change to this program document will incorporate a paragraph rescinding the temporary memorandum as of the date of publication of the change. All change memoranda and program document change sheets shall be issued only over the signature of the Division Chief or his deputy and only after preliminary review and coordination with the program-budget officer.

c. Budget guidance contained in the Budget document portion of this program document is specific and limiting as prescribed in that portion. Activity Directors * and team leaders are personally responsible that no expenditures or obligations are made over the prescribed maximum amounts shown for each major activity level in the Management Structure. Appropriate accounting, recording and reporting procedures prescribed in the XYZ County Child Welfare Division Accounting Manual shall serve to control receipt, expenditures and obligations of funds.

2. The Program-Budget Branch Chief is responsible for supervision, monitorship and actions relating to preparation, development and maintenance of this Program Document and for the Budget Document. Activity directors and team leaders are responsible that all necessary input, including changes, revisions, additions or modifications of program/budget guidance and data in this document are coordinated with the Chief, Program-Budget Branch prior to taking or directing action to effect such changes. (In event of emergency actions precluding prior coordination, the activity director or team leader concerned will make a verbal report to the Program-Budget Branch Chief within 24 hours, followed by a written memorandum explaining the emergency actions. Necessary changes to the program or budget documents shall follow as may be necessary.)

C. ASSUMPTIONS

The FY 1973 program and budget are prepared on the basis of the following assumptions:

a. No significant changes in Federal, State or County legislations will be effective in FY 1973, except for possible transfer of direct payments activities for adult categories to the Federal Social Security Administration.

b. Except as otherwise indicated in specific manpower, budget or workload schedules, the general level of activity for the Division in FY 1973 is not expected to be substantially different from FY 1972.

c. Wage and salary levels for hired personnel for FY 1973 will be 4.5% higher than FY 1972 based upon expected action on the State Budget.

D. MISSIONS OF THE XYZ COUNTY CHILD WELFARE DIVISION

Operations of the XYZ County Child Welfare Division will be carried out to accomplish the following major missions:

a. To provide for members of the community requiring social services, a single, coordinated, effective and efficient organization devoted to providing

---

*(The term "Activity Director" refers to agency or division personnel (such as Chief of the Service Coordination Branch, Chief of Management Assistance Branch, etc., who may be given responsibility for particular functional area control. For example, the Chief, Management Assistance Branch, might be designated as "Activity Director" for the functional area of "Administration".)

comprehensive services for the welfare and protection of children.

b. To provide social services that supplement or substitute for parental care and supervision for the purpose of protecting and promoting the welfare of children, preventing neglect, abuse, and exploitation; to help overcome problems that result in dependency, neglect, or delinquency, and to provide adequate care for children separated from their own homes, such as foster family care, adoptive services, institutional and other services.

c. To enhance economic and personal living conditions in the community by providing needed public services for the maintenance and suoport of the family unit for the benefit of the child who might be endangered by economic or other adverse conditions.

E. POLICY GUIDANCE

Preparation of operational plans, budget levels and other guidance in this program document is based on the following general policies:

a. It shall be the policy of this Division that Child Welfare services shall seek to restore or maintain the integrity of the family unit, and that separation of the child from his natural parent or parents shall not be considered until all reasonable measures to maintain the family unit have been exhausted.

b. When a case is initiated (opened) within the division, responsibility will be retained regardless of referrals of clients to other agencies for specialized services. Responsibility for continuity of actions shall remain with the division until the case is finally closed or officially transferred to another agency or county as a permanent change in services not involving child welfare services of XYZ County.

c. Shortages of resources shall not operate to deny essential services to persons in need of assistance. For this reason, priorities of services shall be established at each activity level to provide necessary aid and assistance at least at minimal levels in all activities. Administrative and other support activities not essential to minimum levels of assistance to clients shall have lesser priority in use of resources.

SECTION I: OPERATIONAL GUIDANCE

General Guidance:

1. Operations and services shall be administered in accordance with the policies and procedures established in organizational and operational manuals and instructions, as issued. This Division shall operate within the concept of use of teams to deliver services, as prescribed in the Division Organization and Procedures Manuals.

2. Personnel assignments, responsibilities, duties and personnel administration shall be in accordance with job descriptions and procedures contained in the Division Organization Manual.

3. Administrative accounting, reporting and management actions shall be in accordance with the Management Structure and related fiscal and other administrative directives and requirements.

4. Use of supplies, equipment and contractual services shall be in accordance with planned distribution in this program document, and shall be for official duty purposes only.

5. Channels of communication shall follow organizational supervisory channels as a normal condition. Coordination among activity directors, team leaders and sub-activity or element supervisors, shall be a normal operational condition.

SECTION II: WORKLOAD GUIDANCE

1. Expected workloads for each activity and sub-activity are contained in the attached Schedule W-1. Activity directors may publish workload schedules for subordinate levels as desired.

2. Workloads contained in the attached schedule represent projections based on current known conditions and assumptions. Significant changes in workloads caused by unusual conditions, or as directed after periodic review and analysis, shall be published as changed schedule pages whenever appropriate.

* * * * * * * * * * * * * *

Explanatory Notes:

a. Workload projections are in categories prescribed in the Management Structure. This permits relating manpower to workloads in logical groupings, indicating what is to be accomplished by each level of activity within the Division. This is a far simpler treatment than attempting to compare the work accomplished by each team within each of the functional areas. Also, from a managerial standpoint, the management structure groupings present new relationships in which manpower is related directly to the work to be done, and the cost of accomplishing the work can be easily derived.

b. Schedule W-1, Workload Projections, following, presents a method of developing workload data by functional area. This schedule becomes the base for relating manhours required to accomplish case workloads to manpower requirements, and, in turn, to the fund requirements for salaries. (This is illustrated in Manpower Schedules M-1 and M-2 in Section III, following.) The workload data become a primary base for budget preparation, as described in Section D.

SCHEDULE W-1 WORKLOAD PROJECTIONS FY 1973 By Fiscal Quarter and Totals

MGMT CODE	ACTIVITY TITLE	WORKLOAD FACTOR	QUARTER [e]				TOTALS [f]
			1st	2d	3d	4th	
1000.00000	CHILD WELFARE [a] (Summary)	1. Manhours [d] (69 Personnel @ 2008 m/h/yr	34,740	34,740	34,740	34,740	138,960
		2. Direct Funds [c]	$366,980	$367,670	$367,280	$367,720	$1,469,650 (sum of codes 1000.00000 & 1000.20000)
		3. Caseloads					
		a. New	499	500	500	501	2,000
		b. Closed	400	400	401	399	1,600
		c. Backlog [b]	100	100	100	100	400

NOTES:

[a] This schedule is derived from manpower projections in Schedules M-1 and M-2 and based on an arbitrary example of 2000 cases projected for the coming year.

[b] In practice, it is assumed that any backlog left from prior year operations would be added to this figure.

[c] In practice, this workload factor "Direct Funds" would be expanded to identify applicable fund sources, and would entail a subsidiary schedule.

(continued on next page)

/d Manhours have been applied to functional areas (detail accounts) based on an average of 60 new cases per social worker.

/e While not specifically illustrated in this example, the breakout of workloads, manhours and funds by calendar quarter permits adjustment of values for seasonal or other fluctuations when applicable. For example the total 2,000 new caseloads, if seasonally affected, might be programmed by quarter as: 250, 450, 650, and 650, if that were expected. Manhours and other support in other detail accounts, of course, would be adjusted to fit varying quarterly workloads.

/f Minor adjustments and rounding off may account for slight differences in quarterly and summary totals.

SCHEDULE W-1 WORKLOAD PROJECTIONS FY 1973 By Fiscal Quarter and Totals

MGMT CODE	ACTIVITY TITLE	WORKLOAD FACTOR	QUARTER				TOTALS
			1st	2d	3d	4th	
1000.10000	Home and Family Services	1. Manhours	11,800	11,800	11,800	11,800	47,200
		2. Direct Funds	$138,920	$139,430	$138,920	$139,480	$556,750 (sum of accounts 1000.12000 & .13000)
		3. Caseloads					
		a. New	293	294	293	295	1,175
		b. Closed	230	230	230	230	920
		c. Backlog	63	64	64	64	255
1000.11000	Counseling and Guidance Services	1. Manhours	5,000	5,000	5,000	5,000	20,000
		2. Caseloads					
		a. New	125	125	125	125	500
		b. Closed	100	100	100	100	400
		c. Backlog	25	25	25	25	100

* *

Breakouts of remaining accounts in the management structure are accomplished in similar fashion

* * * * * * * *

SECTION III: MANPOWER

1. Manpower Guidance:

a. Personnel hired and employed shall be in accordance with skills, duty, and responsibility patterns prescribed in the Division Organizational Manual. The numbers of personnel authorized for hire, by category and by activity are in the attached manpower schedules.

b. Manpower hired shall be employed at the highest level of their individual skills and training. Selection of individuals for employment and promotion shall be in accordance with agency procedures in the Division Personnel Manual.

c. For effective utilization and improvement of skills, in-service and selected academic training programs shall be conducted in accordance with training schedules developed by activity directors on the basis of career programs and agency considerations for career development of employees.

2. Manpower Goals and Objectives (Personnel Administration):

a. To maintain levels of employment at authorized levels and in the skill and professional training levels required.

b. To motivate employees to perform their duties at maximum efficiency and effectiveness through effective training programs and by effective supervision.

c. To retain trained personnel through proper utilization, training, and motivation, with the objective of maintaining the personnel turnover rate at 3% or less annually.

d. To assure effective utilization of employees, emphasis will be placed on a personnel administration program employing recognized techniques for maintaining employee attendance, reducing illness and accident exposure, and developing morale-building activities. The following goals apply:

(1). Attendance: Absences for illness shall not exceed 13% of available manhours annually.

(2). Accidents (on the job): To hold the number of accidents while on duty to zero and the number of manhours lost due to on-duty accidents to zero.

(3). (Others as needed).

* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *

3. Manpower Schedules:

a. Schedule M-1 provides a format showing authorized personnel allowances for FY 1972 and projected requirements for FY 1973, based on current organizational structure.

b. Schedule M-2 provides a redistribution of the projected FY 1973 manpower to activity and sub-activity levels indicating equivalent numbers of personnel and manpower costs (based on average salary rate of $11,200). This distribution is based upon manhour projections contained in workload Schedule W-1 for each level.

SCHEDULE M-1 MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS By Position and Pay Rate

Organization	Personnel Category	FY 1972			FY 1973		
		Position Pay Rate	Number Authorized	Aggregate Payroll	Position Pay Rate	Number Authorized	Aggregate Payroll
Child Welfare Division /a (Summary -- Details on following pages)	All	---	59	$646,000	---	69 /b	$773,000 /c

NOTES:

/a This table is derived from the Division Organization Model (Chapter 8), using arbitrarily assigned pay rates and team sizes related roughly to area workloads.

/b In practice it would be necessary to explain reasons for increased pay rates and for increases in authorized personnel spaces.

/c The average payroll used in relating manpower to functional area costs shown in Schedule M-2 following, is obtained by dividing the aggregate FY 1973 payroll cost by the total number of personnel authorized: $\frac{\$773,000}{69}$ = $11,200 (Approximately).

SCHEDULE M-1 MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS By Position and Pay Rate

Organization	Personnel Category	FY 1972			FY 1973		
		Position Pay Rate	Number Authorized	Aggregate Payroll	Position Pay Rate	Number Authorized	Aggregate Payroll
Office, Division Chief.	Div Chief	$24,500	1	$24,500	$25,000	1	$25,000
	Deputy Div Ch	21,500	1	21,500	22,000	1	22,000
	Admin Officer	14,500	1	14,500	15,000	1	15,000
	Secretary	9,500	1	9,500	10,000	1	10,000
	Clerk-typist	---	0	---	8,000	1	8,000
	Totals	---	4	70,000	80,000	5	80,000
* * * * * * * *	* * * * * * *	* * * * * *	* * * * * *	* * * * * *	* * * * * *	* * * * * *	* * * * * *
Social Work Teams	Team Leaders	14,500	8	116,000	15,000	8	120,000
	Social Worker (Senior Grade)	11,500	2	23,000	12,000	3	36,000
	Social Worker (Junior Grade)	9,500	12	114,000	10,000	14	140,000
	Social Worker (Trainee)	8,000	6	48,000	8,500	8	68,000
	Community Worker	8,500	8	68,000	9,000	8	72,000
	Secretary	7,500	8	60,000	8,000	8	64,000
	Totals	---	44	429,000	---	49	500,000

SCHEDULE M-2

MANPOWER PROJECTIONS: By Activity and Sub-activity, Projected for FY 1973

Activity Code	Title	Projected Annual Manhours (Schedule W-1)	Equivalent Number of Personnel @ 2008 m/h/yr	Projected FY 1973 Manpower Costs @ $11,200
1000.00000	Child Welfare	138,960	69.0	$772,800 *
1000.10000	Home & Family Svcs	47,200	23.5	263,200
1000.11000	Counseling & Guidance	20,000	10.0	112,000
1000.12000	Protective Services	3,200	1.5	16,800
1000.13000	Financial and Other Direct Aid	24,000	12.0	134,400
1000.20000	Outside the Home Svcs	51,600	25.5	285,600
1000.21000	Shelter Care	6,400	3.0	33,600
1000.22000	Residential Treatment	1,200	.5	5,600
1000.23000	Institutional Care	4,000	2.0	22,400
1000.24000	Foster Home Care	32,000	16.0	179,200
1000.25000	Adoption Services	8,000	4.0	44,800
1000.30000	Administration and Support	40,160	20.0	224,000
	Totals	376,720	187.0	$2,094,400
				*Difference from Schedule M-1 is due to rounding off.

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SECTION IV: CONTRACTUAL SERVICES, SUPPLIES AND EQUIPMENT

1. All requests and requisitions for supplies, equipment, and contractual services shall be processed through the Program-Budget Branch for approval before presentation to the procurement office. This requirement is to assure that control is exercised over budgeted items and that use of supplies and equipment or contractual services is in accordance with approved programs in this document.

2. Emergency requirements or unplanned procurement requires adjustment of this program document to reflect fund and budget changes for additional costs of supply or contract items. Cancellation of requirements for supplies, equipment, or contractual services will be reported to the Program-Budget Branch within 3 working days of such action, to permit transfer, adjustment, or release of programmed funds for other purposes.

3. Activity directors and team leaders are responsible for appropriate development of supply, equipment and contractual services requirements as indicated in this program document, and shall be responsible for appropriate use, care, maintenance and storage of items issued for use in their respective work areas. Common use items, such as administrative supplies, electronic data processing machinery, and general use office machines and equipment, shall be the responsibility of the Chief, Administrative Office, for coordination of procurement, use and care.

4. Contractual services and Supply and Equipment Schedules follow: (Extract examples only.)

SCHEDULE C-1 CONTRACTUAL SERVICES FY 1973

Activity Code	Title	Item	Programmed Cost	Purpose
1000.00000	Child Welfare	Total for items described in activity accounts below.	$8,000,000	As indicated in items below
* * *	* * *	* *Examples* *	* * *	* * *
1000.21000	Shelter Care	Contract w/ local plumbing company for continuing maintenance and repair of County Child Care Shelter--water, plumbing, sewage and related water systems.	9,000	To provide necessary on-call services for emergency repairs as needed to water supply, plumbing equipment and sewage systems of the Child Care Shelter Building. Health code prescribes these systems must be fully operative 24 hours/day, 7 days/week.
1000.22000	Residential Treatment Svcs	Contracts w/named Residential treatment homes for care of children when so assigned.	43,200	Provides contract w/privately owned residential homes for treatment of children referred for this type of care. Board and room costs based on statutory allowance: $300/mo/child---one child-year = $3600.
		a. Newton House 112 - 1st St (8 child/yrs)	28,800	
		b. etc.----		

SCHEDULE S-1 SUPPLIES AND EQUIPMENT FY 1973

Activity Code	Title	Item	Programmed Cost	Purpose
1000.00000	Child Welfare	Total for items described in activity accounts below	$12,000,000	As indicated for items below
* * *	* * *	* * Example * *	* * *	* * *
1000.21000	Shelter Care	Compartmented Meal Trays (250 ea)	650	To purchase stainless steel compartmented meal trays to replace breakable dishware now in use. County safety inspection resulted in recommendation to replace breakable crockery-ware used for serving meals to children, because of high breakage incidence and danger of serious injury to children. Stainless steel mess trays provide a safe, one-piece meal service, easier to wash and sterilize.

SECTION V: SPECIFIC GUIDANCE (Examples only)

1. This section provides specific guidance, policies, goals and objectives related to each activity prescribed in the Management Structure. Major Child Welfare Division policies and goals have been incorporated into preceding sections of this Document.

2. Specific guidance for activity and subordinate levels follows:

a. Code 1000.10000 -- HOME AND FAMILY SERVICES

(1). New cases shall be given first priority in services to assure that actions required are initiated within 24 working hours following opening of the case file.

(2). Once opened, each case shall be reviewed at least monthly to assure on-going supervision and continuity of action, until the case is closed.

b. Code 1000.11000 -- COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE SERVICES

(1). (appropriate guidance as needed).

c. Code 1000.24000 -- FOSTER HOME CARE

(1). A program of Foster Home recruitment shall be emphasized during FY 1973 to provide a register of eligible foster homes equivalent to 125% of the projected workload for the year.

d. Code 1000.25000 -- ADOPTION SERVICES

(1). (appropriate guidance as needed).

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SECTION VI: BUDGET GUIDANCE

1. Policy Guidance:

In addition to other guidance contained elsewhere in this program document, the following policies, goals and objectives applicable to budget planning and budget execution govern:

a. Activity directors and team leaders will be responsible for initiation, development and review of budgetary controls within their areas of responsibility to assure that operations and expenditures are in consonance with this planned fiscal year budget, and with other guidance in this document.

b. To preclude over-obligation (over-expenditure) of funds, and to assure maximum effective utilization of authorized funding levels, activity directors and team leaders will manage their operations so as to utilize not less that 99.9% of authorized funds, nor more than 100%.

c. Activity directors and team leaders are not authorized to effect changes in operations and funding levels exceeding 5% without coordination with the Program-Budget Chief and specific permission of the Division Chief.

2. The Operating Budget contained in Section VII is the approved plan of operations. Deviations (except as authorized above) are not permitted without prior coordination with the Program-Budget Branch and approval of the Division Chief.

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SECTION VII: OPERATING BUDGET FY 1973

(An example Operating Budget format is illustrated separately in Section D.4 of this Appendix. Normally, operating budgets, while technically part of the Program Document, may be published separately because of the time elements involved. In this sense, preliminary budgets are replaced by final approved (marked-up) budgets as these events occur, each being an appropriate part of the Program Document until revised or superseded.)

SECTION C: THE "MANAGEMENT STRUCTURE"

The core of any management system is its "Chart of Accounts". Every business and governmental agency operates on the basis of money--accounting to its highest authority for funds received and disbursed. The chart of accounts provides groupings of funds into categories from which the manager may obtain a picture of financial affairs--how much has been received and from what sources --how much has been disbursed and for what purposes (costs).

In the management system under discussion, the traditional chart of accounts has been expanded and altered to serve an additional purpose--to relate for management the workloads which have been accomplished with the funds and manpower made available for the purpose. To distinguish this concept from the traditional "Chart of Accounts", we have selected the term "Management Structure", as used in the Federal PPBS.

The basic relationship of the "Management Structure" to the entire management system under discussion is illustrated in Chart B-1. All organizational planning, budgeting, financial accounting, management analysis and management decisions are based upon use of the functional groupings of activities into which operations are divided.

Perhaps an explanation of the difference between traditional managerial accounting systems and what we call "functional" activities is in order.

The usual accounting practice is to categorize expenditures into "object classes", such as 'Payroll', 'Transportation', 'Postage', etc. On the other hand, the functional treatment describes what the organizational element does, such as 'Foster Home Care', 'Adoption Services', etc., and then, within each of these functional accounts, expenditures may be further identified for 'Payroll', 'Transportation', 'Postage', etc., as related to that particular activity.

The advantage of this treatment is that the costs or expenditures for the type of work being done can be identified--and thus the cost of a total program (such as Child Welfare) can be built up from its elements (Foster Home Care, Adoption Services, etc.).

To illustrate this concept, a skeleton management structure has been developed and is included in this section, indicating a breakout for a child welfare division organization. Of importance are the major features of such a structure:

a. A coding system (arbitrary, in this example) is used to identify each level and sub-level activity. (Elaborate coding systems have been devised in actual practice to facilitate use of data processing machines for accounting and reporting systems, and this consideration must be included in development of coding systems for local use.)

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b. Each major program and all of its sub-levels are carefully defined as to what is done and what types of expenditures and actions apply to the particular function.

c. Each major program and its sub-levels are represented by whatever appropriate quantitative workload factors can be devised, indicating (to the extent possible) the major quantitative work output representative of the activity. In some cases, there may be several workload factors describing the output of a single activity, or for the purpose of recording other quantitative data, such as manhours.

d. The structure permits upward accumulation of workloads and costs from the smallest identified element to the highest program level applicable.

The management structure shown is illustrative of the principles involved. One of the basic advantages is the flexibility of such a structure. Activity and lower levels may (and should) be added, regrouped, redefined and modified at any time that changing conditions require. Workload factors, similarly, may be added or revised to improve the data base for management information.

The management structure is used to assemble data and information into common-use categories to relate planning, budgeting, accounting, reporting and management analysis actions.

The purposes and uses of the management structure must not be confused with those of more detailed financial accounting and detailed workload reports normally found in current use.

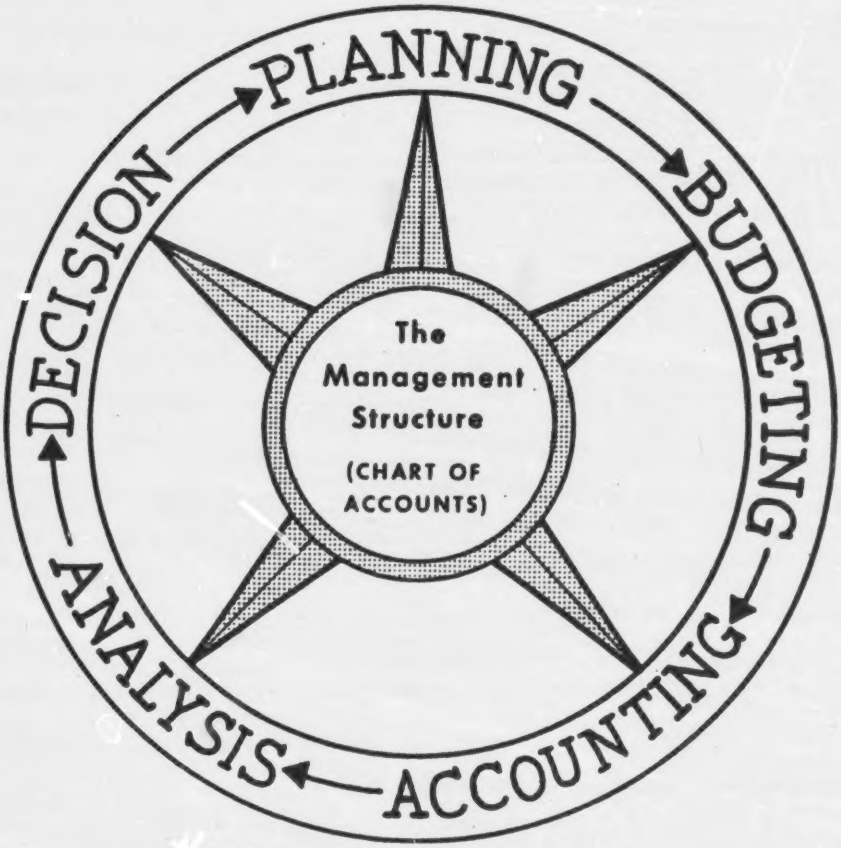
The detailed data provided by existing case folders, workload count reports, financial data, and status of case reports are regrouped by the structure and utilized, rather, to create a new relationship of summary data for management analysis.

The management structure does not replace nor seriously affect existing systems of internal, detailed, financial reports and data base; it serves rather as a "gathering together" and coordinating device for management review of the summary data obtainable from detailed reporting systems.

Existing detailed data systems, in fact, remain and retain their role as essential input for the Management Information System discussed in Section E.3 of this Appendix. Normal accounting and financial reporting systems are not changed necessarily by the introduction of a "Management Structure". However, detailed report and accounting forms may need to be revised to assure both the availability of financial data to suit regrouped activities in the management structure, and to continue serving the formal financial accounting system.

CHART B-1

Uses of the MANAGEMENT STRUCTURE


PLANNING
BUDGETING
ACCOUNTING
ANALYSIS
DECISION
The Management Structure
(CHART OF ACCOUNTS)

AN EXAMPLE "MANAGEMENT STRUCTURE" FOR A CHILD WELFARE DIVISION

1. EXPLANATION AND DEFINITIONS:

a. PROGRAM. A logical, functional grouping of activities identifiable as a major effort in which manpower, funds and other resources are utilized to achieve a common goal. (In this example, "Child Welfare" is illustrated as a "Program", although in an actual situation, "Child Welfare" most probably would be an activity subordinate to a total "Social Welfare" program.)

b. ACTIVITY. The next subordinate level of effort contributing to the accomplishment of the goals of a program. Activity levels generally define the various separate functions contributing to the program effort.

c. SUB-ACTIVITY. A definite grouping of functional efforts within the activity definition, and in which specific actions are taken to accomplish established objectives.

d. ELEMENTS. Specific, limited, functions or organizational entities contributing to sub-activity efforts.

e. CODES. A series of numerical (or alpha-numeric) designations to identify each element and higher level functional grouping to facilitate accumulations of data and information, either manually, or by electronic or other data processing machinery. (In this example, a very simple, arbitrary, coding system is utilized solely to illustrate the principle involved.)

(1). Program: "Child Welfare" is designated by a (arbitrary) 9-digit code such as $\underline{1}000.00000$ (the underlined digit indicates the level).

(2). Activity: Each subordinate activity is identified within the 5 digits to the

right of the decimal point, thus: 1000.10000
1000.20000
1000.30000 ---etc.

(3). Sub-Activity: Designated by the second digit place to the right of the decimal point, such as:
1000.11000
1000.12000
1000.13000 ---etc.

(4). Element: Designated by the third digit place to the right of the decimal point, such as:
1000.12100
1000.12200
1000.12300 ---etc.

(5). The remaining digits to the right of the decimal point may be utilized for further sub-element or lower break-outs if needed. The 3 zero-place digits to the left of the decimal point are provided to illustrate possible use for special purposes, such as electronic data processing accumulations of special items of information. For example, a coding 1002.00000 might be utilized to accumulate and identify special or earmarked funds which require special reporting or control.

(6). Workload Factors: These are specifically defined items of data expressing the output of the efforts expended in the particular level in which these appear. There may be several workload factors for an individual level.

2. SUMMARY INDEX OF AN EXAMPLE CHILD WELFARE DIVISION MANAGEMENT STRUCTURE

CODE	TITLES			
	Program Level	Activity Level	Sub-activity Level	Element Level
1000.00000	CHILD WELFARE PROGRAM			
1000.10000		Home and Family Services		
1000.11000			Counseling and Guidance Services	
1000.12000			Protective Services	
1000.13000			Financial and Other Direct Aid	
1000.13100				Direct Fund Assistance
1000.13200				Homemaker Services
1000.13300				Day Care Services
1000.20000		Outside-the-Home Services		
1000.21000			Shelter Care	
1000.22000			Residential Treatment Services	
1000.23000			Institutional Care	
1000.24000			Foster Home Care	
1000.25000			Adoption Services	
1000.30000		Administration and Support		

3. EXAMPLE DETAILS AND DEFINITIONS FOR PROGRAM, ACTIVITY AND LOWER LEVEL ACCOUNTS

CODE	TITLE
1000.00000	CHILD WELFARE PROGRAM

This program level provides for the accumulation of manpower, costs, workloads and related management data pertaining to the delivery of child welfare services, including pay of personnel, direct financial aid to recipients, casework services in and outside the home, shelter care, foster home, institutional care, adoption and other services, supplies and equipment, transportation, contractual services, and other expenditures identifiable as being utilized to accomplish the services and workloads prescribed in subordinate level activities defined below.

Workload Factors:

1. Manhours expended in services: Accumulates total manhours expended by paid employees for direct and administrative services covering all of the subordinate activities within the program.

2. Direct Funds: Accumulates total dollar amounts of direct financial aid provided to families and children in each of the activities, and identified in the following categories (examples only):

   a. Aid to Families with Dependent Children
      (1). AFDC - Direct
      (2). AFDC - BHI
   b. Aid to Foster Families
   c. Aid to Adoptive Families
   d. Day Care Funds
   e. Shelter Care Funds
   f. Payments to other Institutions and Agencies
      (1). Homemaker Contracts
      (2). Subsidized Homes
   g. (Others as applicable)

3. Caseloads:

   a. New Cases: Counts each new case file (application, service provided, etc) initiated during the reporting period.

b. Cases Closed: Counts number of files (cases) closed. (A case is considered closed when no further action or support is required, final reports have been prepared, and case file is routed to closed or inactive file status.)

c. Backlog: Counts total of all cases not closed by end of reporting period, including those new case files received during the reporting period and for which action is completed.

1000.10000 HOME AND FAMILY SERVICES

This activity account is provided as a functional level for accumulation of directly relatable manhours, workloads, and costs expended in these types of services.

(Note: This and other activity and subordinate accounts would be defined in further detail as desired by the agency management.)

Workload Factors:

1. Manhours expended in services.	As defined above.
2. Direct Funds.	Those applicable at this level and as defined above.
3. Caseloads.	As defined above.
a. New Cases	
b. Cases Closed	
c. Backlog	

* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *

1000.30000 ADMINISTRATION AND SUPPORT

Provides for accumulation of manhours, costs and workloads attributable to general administration and support of the child welfare program and its activities. Includes common administrative services not directly identifiable with other specific activity or sub-activity accounts in this structure, such as labor costs of office of Division Chief, secretarial and staff personnel performing overall administrative, control or support services, common use supplies, equipment, transportation and travel, school tuition and training not associated specifically with other account levels, rental of office space, utilities, facilities and equipment, repairs and maintenance, minor construction, postage and other central administration.

Workload Factors:

1. Manhours

* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *

SECTION D: DEVELOPING RESOURCE REQUIREMENTS

1. Developing Workload Projections

While the "Workload Factors" prescribed in the management structure are basic, minimal, data requirements, the planning phase demands much more detailed data than is indicated in that structure. For example, building up the plan and budget for administrative services requires specific item-by-item descriptions of all supplies and equipment needed; the numbers and kinds of typewriters, desks, pencils, report forms, file folders, etc.

The coordinative function of the management structure in regard to workload projections is illustrated in this connection by the simple example that the number of file folders to be purchased by the agency supply department for all child welfare activities can be estimated by determining the projected number of new case files to be opened in the next year by each of the activities, as would be indicated by the projected workload factor "New Cases".

The development of workload projections is a task assigned to each activity director and team leader. It is his responsibility to determine the expected workloads for the future period, and to plan accordingly.

Projected workloads are developed usually by analysis of past workloads and realistic relationship of past experience with the expected trends, population characteristics, and needs of the community being served. In this planning stage, careful distinction must be made between workload projections actually processed in a past period and the total number of cases which may be generated by the community. What was accomplished in the past period may have been limited by lack of availability of office space, manpower, or funds. Initial workload planning first should take into account what is expected to occur in terms of total workload demand. Scaling such projections downward to what can be done within the limits of personnel or resources made available is a second step occurring later in the planning and budget review process.

The concept of workload projection presented here is that it must be realistic, quantifiable, and represent to a major extent, the output (results) of the efforts of the activity. Note that it need not include every action of the effort--only so much as expresses a reasonably logical end-product upon which a considered judgment may be based. The end-product of all the work in the adoption activity is to effect a placement. Recruitment, processing, counseling, interviewing, and administrative work all lead to that end. Such types of data then can be utilized to develop specific manpower requirements for expected workloads. Also, the initiation of other management studies may result if it is found, by comparison with other like activities, that the manhours expended per placement are higher (or lower) than normal.

Undoubtedly, most managerial systems already utilize these types of data in this way. Of significance is the principle in use of the management structure that development of realistic output-oriented workload factors is, in fact, essential for further management use, such as developing manpower requirements.

The workload factors listed and defined in the example management structure were selected to illustrate the concept of establishing:

a. Actual expenditure of manhours of personnel in accomplishing a total program effort, and manhours utilized for each specialized activity, to include separate identification of overhead and administration.

b. Identification of direct fund support requirements for each activity and element, by type of fund used. Thus, together with applying dollar amounts to manhours, the total cost of each functional effort (such as Adoption Services) can be derived.

c. An output-oriented work count expressing a quantifiable result of the activity, thus permitting a direct relationship between manhours expended, costs, and results achieved.

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2. Developing Manpower Requirements

In the social services fields, the difficulty of relating manpower to output is well recognized (161).

It was to solve this type of problem that the Planning, Programming, Budget System management structure and workload factor concept proposed in this study, was adopted. In this discussion of manpower requirement determination, there must be a clear understanding of the various aspects of manpower control and utilization:

a. Manpower requirements in the child welfare field not only must relate manhours to output as one gauge of activity, but must consider also, the professional aspects of manpower required. The management structure, in fact, does include consideration of professional skill requirements. The mix of professional and lower-skill effort within a task is accounted for through manhour expenditures related to the functional structure.

b. While there have been numerous studies of the use of work measurement (time-study) analysis of social service activities, it should be understood that work measurement represents a separate "process" study aimed at refining operational procedures to save the time and manual effort of workers in actual conduct of work. The concept of the management structure "output-oriented" workload factor assumes that work measurement studies already have been accomplished and that manhours being put into the production of counted output already are under controlled procedures. Thus, work-simplification, work-measurement, time-study and related procedure-oriented manpower controls are an essential preliminary action to that of reporting and recording workload/manhour outputs under the management structure concept. (The subject of application and uses of work-simplification techniques is covered in Section E.4 in more detail.)

In most agencies, manpower is controlled through devices such as "Staffing Patterns" or "Authorizations". These are experience-developed standards indicating how many personnel are required for various workloads. The primary difference in concept between such types of authorization tables and the management structure development of direct manhours to output is illustrated by the current standard of assignment of 60 cases to a social worker. Note that "carrying a load" of 60 cases has no relationship to actual work done. As an extreme example, a very slow and inefficient worker may always have 60 cases assigned to him at any one time, but he may not do very much with any of them. Conversely, an efficient worker may dispose of his 60 cases in a relatively short time, yet be assigned a running total of 60 cases all the time (a new case being assigned as soon as he gets done with an old one). The net result is that each worker meets the standard of carrying 60 cases.

The management structure concept, however, forces a direct relationship of manhours expended to cases disposed of or closed--the desired end-product of the effort.

Of importance in manhour/workload reporting also, is the consideration of quality of output. The management structure concept assumes, as another condition of its use, that end-products are of the quality desired and that the work output is of professional quality. The assurance of quality product in social service delivery systems is no different than the quality control inspection process in a ball-bearing factory--it is a separate review system necessarily effective before any meaningful review of output or manhours can be made. (This is not to infer that no count can be made unless the process is always qualitatively effective. Quality control systems are continuous and concurrent inspections together with output/manhour counting--they assure that output is being maintained or improved in quality while work is being performed; corrective actions being taken automatically whenever quality falls below professional standards established.)

In connection with the subject of manpower requirements for budget preparation, there is an additional manpower relationship which must be considered--that of relating the physical facilities, supplies, equipment and contractual services to the manpower to be employed. Section D.3 following, will bring this subject into perspective.

3. Developing Requirements for Contractual Services, Supplies and Equipment

In addition to the manpower requirements and the personnel costs accumulated in functional accounts in the management structure concept, provision must be made for identification of requirements for and costs of items of supplies and equipment, physical facilities used or rented, and for expenditures made in the form of contracts, or services obtained by contract.

In respect to these types of direct costs, the management structure concept already exists in current budget preparation procedures, except that, whenever possible, costs of these services or physical support items are attributed to the functional activity rather than being presented as a comprehensive list of support items. Provision to identify this sort of breakout is made by separate identification of an "Administration and Support" account in the management structure, as well as for the various functional activities of the organization.

Every team leader or activity director develops a listing and estimates the costs of all the supplies, equipment and contractual services needed in his particular work, based on the workloads and manpower he projects. Thus, if the team employs six social workers, a logical assumption could be made that six desks and six chairs would be needed. If directly attributable to a particular function, these costs are directly identifiable and charged to the function. On the other hand, some agencies having central purchasing and supply functions may distribute such costs on a percentage or other type of approximation basis. For those items of common use, such as a single copy-machine used by all activities, identification of these as general administration and support may be sufficient and appropriate; otherwise, costs are distributed to functional activities on some reasonable percentage or pro-rata basis.

The major advantage in the proposed management structure concept is the ability to identify support costs directly identifiable with the related countable workloads and manpower requirements in each functional activity, and to develop for general administration and support, reasonable estimates of quantities and types of supplies, equipment and support items needed.

The treatment and distribution of support costs must be defined by management to assure that resources are appropriate in quantity and type to support all of the workloads. Comprehensive accumulation and review of lists of support items from each activity permit identification of duplicatory requirements, of possibilities for common use of certain items (automobiles for transportation, for example) and for determining administrative personnel requirements in relation to the total program requirements.

Consideration must be given to defining clearly what items of support apply to specific programs, and what to general administration. For example, office rental costs may be apportioned to various activities in a central headquarters building by a factor such as square footage utilized. Telephone or utility costs may require apportionment if significant, but in some cases it may be just as meaningful to show these as general overhead at the program level. Training of personnel requires determination as to whether the training program benefits a particular function only, or can be considered a program-wide cost.

Contractual services costs require similar care in definition. Contract medical services, for example, may not easily be broken out to separate functions. Direct payments to foster families, or fund transfers, such as for food stamp programs, however, may be directly identifiable. Electronic Data Processing rental or service contracts normally are not identifiable to activity level. These may be accounted for at the program account level or in the general administrative account level, as is most practicable.

4. Preparing the Budget

The preceding discussions have indicated the general relationships among workload factors, workload projections, manpower estimates, contractual, supply and equipment costs, and how these can be brought together to develop an agency budget. Now, it is necessary to outline certain principles to be followed in developing a "performance budget".

Budget preparation in many cases reflects a large variety of presentation treatment depending upon the ability and ingenuity of the organization manager to develop and substantiate requests for funds, personnel, supplies and equipment.

It is essential for the agency (program) director to establish firm guidelines and detailed formats for development and presentation of budget requests. Unless uniformly presented, the total budget at the program level will be meaningless and uncoordinated. Each activity director and team leader develops manpower, workload, contractual services, supplies and equipment schedules in a uniform format. Guidelines and instructions for preparing justification statements are developed to assure consistency and clarity of budget data and information.

The development of a budget normally consists of three major steps. First, a preliminary budget is prepared in which certain key data and basic information are developed by activity directors and team leaders based upon preliminary guidance furnished by the program director. This first step is taken to give management a preliminary look at the general size and aspects of the agency budget and to detect possible areas of conflict, problems, and areas requiring special emphasis.

Based upon review of the preliminary budget, program directors are enabled to assess the general scope and trends of workloads, manpower, and support requirements in relation to the expected availability of resources. This preliminary view of the budget normally results in development of new policy, goal and objective statements to clarify what the agency will do in the future operating period. New and more detailed guidance and formats are then prepared for use by subordinate activities in preparing the formal budget. Some of the actions which often occur in the preliminary budget phase are these:

a. The manpower, workload and support schedules may indicate stated requirements obviously above the levels which expected availability of resources can support. At this point, the program director must issue new guidance as to how to reduce requirements in preparing the formal (final) budget. As one example, it may be necessary to direct that certain lower priority activities be curtailed (i.e. to plan for lesser workload, or to restrict normal services, reduce office hours, eliminate unessential items, etc.)

b. Often, separate activity levels may develop out-of-phase data, such as predicting increased workloads in various activities without fully coordinating with the administrative activity for increased transportation, supplies and equipment for the increased manpower requirements. The preliminary budget review is designed to detect imbalances of this nature. Preliminary guidance always provides for internal coordination among activities dependent on others for interactions and direct support.

After issuance of more detailed guidance, and after refining policies, goals, and objectives, and determining levels and priorities of services, the second budget preparation phase is to develop a formal (sometimes called a "final") budget. This sequence results in development of a fully coordinated budget reflecting a considered management viewpoint as to what the organization intends to do and what resources it needs to perform the tasks required by the program. In most cases, this formal budget is again reviewed, since it now has in it the full detail of updated and revised data which are to be provided to the budgetary approval authority. Further corrections, revisions, and changes invariably result from this second review. When so corrected, the formal budget is then presented for approval. Depending on the number of levels of budget review, budgets are corrected and revised several times before finalization.

Once presented as a final document, the budget reflects what the organization plans to do with the resources requested. It serves to indicate to the approval authority that management of the proposed program is planned to be effective and efficient, and that the budget request is sound and based on facts.

The third major step in the budgetary process is the return of the approved budget to the operating agency indicating approval or disapproval of the resources requested. This may be called a "marked up" budget, and it normally becomes a directive from the final approving authority to carry out the program under whatever revised conditions are indicated in the returned (marked-up) budget document. The types of directed changes which can be expected, and which the performance budget system is designed to accomodate include:

a. Reduction, elimination, or modification of the resources requested, with or without guidance as to how the activity concerned is to meet the revision.

b. Requirements to furnish additional, or more detailed, data, or to strengthen or explain justification statements, policies, goals or objectives, etc.

c. Express limitations or guidance on use of resources, and similar restrictions, such as hiring freezes, which require changes in plans or operations.

Of importance is an understanding that this budgetary process is an essential part of the Program Document process. In practice, the preliminary budget preparation usually is based on a preliminary Program Document, containing most of the necessary preliminary guidance. As developed, the Preliminary Budg and the Final Approved Budget, in turn, become integral parts of the Program Document. The impact of this treatment is that the final "marked up" budget becomes a trigger mechanism initiating actions to again review the formal plan of operations in the Program Document to fit the new picture of resource availability and final program guidance. Thereafter, the budget generally is not changed, but changes in plans for other budgetary reasons continue to be made as the course of events dictates throughout the year.

Timing of budget preparation steps is critical. Working backwards in the calendar of events, provision must be made at each organizational level for considered review and return of necessary guidance to originating subordinate activities. While it is difficult to start a preliminary budget process without some key guidance and data from top management, it is usually mandatory to fix a date to start budgetary development, even if key definitive guidance is lacking. In this event, management must follow the practice of making assumptions on key issues when it has no definite information or guidance. Lacking information on the final status of pending legislation, for example, an assumption could be made that the legislation will pass, and that plans and programs can be developed along the lines indicated. In some cases, it may be necessary even to develop alternate plans simultaneously, providing first for a budget and plans on the assumption that the legislation in question passes; and secondly, on the assumption it does not. The program budget concept of planning for alternate paths of action is, in fact, realistic and often necessary in many such cases when planning and budgetary development cannot wait for last minute developments. In budget development, it is better to have a basic plan ready that can be quickly modified, than to have no plan and have to start from scratch with insufficient time to develop properly and coordinate the planning actions.

Following is an illustrative format for a budget document.

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SCHEDULE B-1 BUDGET FORMAT FY 1973

Activity Code: Activity Title: FY 1973 Workload Factors:

1. Manhours ____
2. Direct Funds $ ____
3. Caseloads:
   a. New ____
   b. Closed ____
   c. Backlog ____

ITEM:	FY 1972 Appropriated	FY 1972 Actual	FY 1973 Program	Increase/Decrease From FY 72 Approp	Justification (Remarks)
TOTALS:	____	____	____	____	
1. Pay of Personnel:	____				
2. Direct Funds:	____				
3. Contractual Svcs:	____				
4. Supplies & Eqpmt:	____				
5. Other:	____				

DETAIL BELOW: ____

Explanation: This represents a standardized format suitable for entry of common budgetary data and information (see example on following page). Each sheet may represent a management structure account, or, if needed, an activity or program level summary sheet.

Generally, in budget formulation, dollars are expressed to the nearest dollar, one-hundred dollars or one-thousand dollars, depending upon the magnitude of values. Thus, much unnecessary typing and computational effort are avoided by using $100 instead of $100.00 .

SCHEDULE B-1 BUDGET FORMAT FY 1973

Activity Code:	Activity Title:	FY 1973 Workload Factors:	
1000. 24000	FOSTER HOME CARE	1. Manhours	32,000
		2. Direct Funds	$ 720,000
		3. Caseloads:	
		a. New	600
		b. Closed	500
		c. Backlog	100

ITEM:	FY 1972 Appropriated	FY 1972 Actual	FY 1973 Program	Increase/Decrease From FY 72 Approp	Justification (Remarks)	
TOTALS:	$2,422,000	$2,365,029	$2,518,600	$96,600		
1. Pay of Personnel:	1,715,000	1,710,000	1,792,000	77,000	A	See "Detail Below"
2. Direct Funds:	700,000	650,000	720,000	20,000	B	
3. Contractual Svcs:	2,000	2,000	2,500	500	C	
4. Supplies & Eqpmt:	4,000	3,029	4,100	100	D	
5. Other:	1,000	0	0	(1,000)	E	

DETAIL BELOW:

A. Pay of Personnel: For pay of equivalent of 16 personnel (32,000 manhours) at average FY 1973 salary rate of $11,200 (See Workload Schedules W-1 and Manpower Schedules M-1 and M-2). Includes pro-rated manhours of Team Leader, Team Secretary, Community Worker, expended in this functional area. Additional $77,000 required to support 4.5% pay raise authorized by State legislature effective for FY 1973.

B. Direct Funds: For payment of monthly allowances to foster families for care of children placed in foster homes.

(continued next page)

(Detail continued)

Increase of $20,000 over the FY 1972 appropriation represents increase in monthly rate from $97.50 to $100 as prescribed by county legislation. FY 1972 allowance per family was $1170 per year. The caseload of 600 new cases for FY 1973 represents a requirement for $1200 per year per family or a total of $720,000. (Note: This example assumes that direct funds for continuing payments after the placement is effected are paid directly through a central county funding source and are not charged to this account.)

C. Contractual Services: For printing, publications and other publicity costs for recruitment of new foster families. This amount represents an annual contract with local newspaper for weekly advertisement and accompanying news items. Contract cost is increased by $500 for FY 1973 following renegotiation of contract.

D. Supplies and Equipment: For miscellaneous supplies and equipment to support foster home care program. Item: 3 card tables @ $12 and 12 folding metal chairs @ $5 for total of $96 needed to conduct weekly community workshops, etc.

E. Other: $1,000 appropriated in FY 72 for special one-time exhibit at County Fair not required because of decision not to participate. Item not required for FY 1973.

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SECTION E: MANAGEMENT CONTROL TECHNIQUES

None of the management control techniques to be discussed are "new". The purpose of this discussion is to show how recognized systems of management may be brought together, adapted, and utilized in a child welfare organization. To simplify the discussion, we have chosen to redefine and regroup these "systems of management" into three major types of controls:

a. Systems to assure coordination of all operations. (Sections E.1 and E.2, following.) These can be categorized by the titles "Systems Analysis" or "Cost-Benefits Analysis" and similar concepts of broad, comprehensive, reviews of total operations. The manager looks at the broad goals of the organization to see if these are being met. If not, he reviews the interactions among various parts of the organization to see if re-direction or re-organization of activities will assist efforts to accomplish goals and objectives. He may find means to alter procedures to improve coordination among different activities. Systems Analysis studies often result in a major re-direction of total activities. Cost Analysis studies may reveal more economical ways of achieving results.

b. Systems to assure control over day-to-day operations. (Section E.3) These, under the general heading of "Management Information Systems", or "Feedback Systems", are designed to provide on-going reports to management to permit the manager to keep track of operations and to detect results which do not meet standards, or to detect unfavorable trends, such as over-utilization of resources against planned usage. Included within this group are most of the more familiar managerial actions such as periodic review and analysis, financial accounting and reporting systems and operations reports and records systems, including inspections systems, follow-up actions, etc.

c. Systems to improve efficiency and effectiveness of operations. (Section E.4). These are managerial systems aimed at improving physical aspects of doing the work of the organization. Work-simplification, work-measurement, and other "process-oriented" systems are included in this category. Personnel training programs, communications systems, electronic data processing systems, manpower controls, personnel administration, administrative reports and forms control, organizational structure, and other procedural special interest studies are typical.

One major point of emphasis to be made in discussing these management control systems is that good management uses any or all of them, as needed. In practical management, the manager may use many of these simultaneously to assure day-to-day control as well as aiming at long-range changes and improvements. That the manager must be trained in, or possess a solid knowledge and appreciation concerning the uses of all of these systems, is basic to his success as a manager.

1. Systems Analysis

One of the most difficult aspects of a review of Systems Analysis is to define what it is. Fine (50) states that "A systems approach refers to a method of organizing knowledge, manpower, and resources within a specified time frame in order to achieve a specific purpose." He defines the major features of the "systems" approach (paraphrased here) as being an analysis by the manager of:

The purpose of the organization.

The environment and constraints within which it works.

The resources available to do the work.

How components (sub-systems) operate within the total system.

How the system is managed.

Elkin (43) discusses what he calls seven "attributes" of the systems approach: (also paraphrased)

1. There exist in the management decision-making process "a number of complex and interrelated elements", which must be analyzed to determine what happens when any one or more of these elements changes.

2. It is necessary to define the "system of concern" -- that is, to determine the boundaries of work areas to be analyzed.

3. It is necessary to "identify the objective of the system".

4. "Alternative ways of reaching the objective of the system of concern" must be considered and found.

5. Means of "integration of systems" must be explored.

6. A means of "Feedback" or "communication or data flow" must be developed to monitor the system.

7. An analysis is made of "organizational relationships to accomplish the objectives of the system in the most efficient way"

Bloedorn (16) constructs the systems analysis approach to problem-solving in the following steps:

1. Identify the problem.

2. Set Objectives.

3. Determine Criteria for Success.

4. Research the Situation.

5. Establish Solution Constraints.

6. Develop Alternatives.

7. Test Alternatives against Criteria.

8. Select the Best Alternative and Plan how to install it.

9. Install and monitor the new procedure.

Bloedorn likens systems analysis, in its broad connotation, to the iceberg whose top showing above the water line gives little indication of its size below. Of interest is his distinction between "discrete problem solving" or "one-shot problem solving" and "continuous problem solving"; the first applicable to the "immediate problem, that piece of the iceberg above the surface"; and the second being an approach to solving on-going problems, in which the whole iceberg is kept in view. Bloedorn points out that the systems approach allows an approach to both immediate and ongoing problems from a total point of view.

Another good explanatory discussion of systems analysis appears in the short publication: "Corporate Planning Models for University Management--Report No. 4". (31)

In systems analysis, the review of attainment of program objectives is continuous. Steps to correct problems form a never-ending cycle of events until the problem is solved. Systems Analysis in the social services field include recent Department of HEW actions to reorganize social service delivery systems to:

1. Develop a program and financial planning system.

2. Separate income maintenance from social services.

3. Define program goals and objectives, and spell out services to be mandated or to be optional.

4. Set forth the conditions to be met in the purchase of services.

5. Develop a system for the evaluation and monitoring of service programs.

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2. Cost Analysis Systems

Similar to Systems Analysis, definitions of and the concept of Cost Analysis differ according to sources and applications.

Cost Analysis generally is used to relate expenses of producing items or services with maximum profitability. In public service operations, with the profit motive missing, the application becomes one of maximizing services at the least cost. Like Systems Analysis, Cost Analysis also deals with alternative courses of action in which the manager must select the best (but not necessarily the most inexpensive) method of operation which will enable him to achieve the goals established for the organization.

Early studies in the field of Cost Analysis, such as those of Schwartz and Wolins in "Cost Analysis in Child Welfare Services" (160), reflect the major emphasis in that period (1958) of application of time-study or unit-cost development as a means of satisfying Federal programs involving performance budgeting. The pamphlet, "Planning, Programming, Budgeting Systems and Social Welfare" (161) indicates the growing emphasis on performance budgeting, with time-study being one of several systems components, including cost accounting, which contribute to a Cost Analysis study.

The definition supplied by Levine for "Cost-Benefit Analysis" is self-explanatory:

> By 'cost-benefit' is meant the relationship of the resources required--the cost--to attain certain goals--the benefits. It is based on the economic concept that many executive decisions involve the allocation, or best use, of limited resources among competing requirements. The allocation of available resources is determined by a comparative analysis of the current system with presumably practical alternative systems. Thus conceived, cost-benefit analysis is a tool for the administrator confronted with the need to make choices among viable competing programs designed to achieve certain specified objectives. It is not a substitute for the educated judgment of the decision-maker. Rather it provides a package of relevant information on which to base certain kinds of decisions. Also, it does not favor the "cheapest" or even the "best" program, but the optimal program in terms of the available resources (money, trained personnel, facilities). (161:46)

For purposes of this study, we should like to define the management tool called "Cost Analysis" as being close to the broader scope of "Cost-Benefit Analysis". As will be mentioned in the discussion on procedural controls, we should like, also, to interpret "Time-cost", "Time-study", 'Work-measurement", "Unit-costs", and similar terms as indicating the more detailed study of costs of finite operations. These are, in practice, sub-techniques used to arrive at the conclusions and decisions in Cost Analysis or Cost-Benefits studies.

The capability of using Cost Analysis (or Cost Benefit Analysis) as a managerial device is limited by the state of an organization's formal financial and accounting system. Bonney and Streicher highlighted this by pointing out that "A more basic restriction of the potential for cost analysis in social work results from the generally poor level of financial record keeping" (21). The financial accounting system in the program-performance-budget-system is as relevant to smooth performance as is the transmission in the automobile. From the financial accounts come the facts concerning expenses for doing work. Both the manner in which the accounting system is structured, and its integrity, affect the results of a Cost Analysis study.

This does not mean, however, that the accounting system records must be kept in the precise categories desired for making a cost analysis. If the accounting system truly reveals the state of financial affairs required by normal accounting practice, it can be utilized for cost analysis by use of pertinent statistical distribution or through more detailed study and analysis of specific areas of interest.

The place of financial accounting and financial records and reports, as part of Management Information Systems, is discussed more fully in connection with that aspect of management control.

With reference to cost analysis techniques, the process involves logical steps:

a. Collection of detailed cost-based data from all sources applicable, including time-studies, work-measurement studies, management structure workload and unit cost data, accounting system records and reports, etc.

b. Analysis of data to reveal significant aspects of costs of labor, of supplies and equipment, of contractual services, and of specific procedures under study.

c. Development of comparisons of costs among like activities, or of alternative ways of performing work, etc.

d. Testing, or developing a model, if practicable, to determine comparative efficiency of proposed new procedures.

e. Presentation of Cost Analysis recommendations to top management for decision.

f. Installation and refinement of new procedures.

g. Follow-up to assure and prove cost benefits resulting from the actions taken.

The impact of changes in processes resulting from cost analysis is not confined to installing new methods of doing work, but necessarily will be reflected also in changes to program document guidance, and certainly in the budget. Unit costs obtained in cost analysis studies become powerful budgetary and planning factors, since these often replace or refine the estimating or projection factors used in the past in developing resource requirements. The impact on policies, goals and objectives, also, is a matter for further study and action.

3. Management Information Systems (Feedback Systems)

The terms "Management Information System" or "Feedback System" are defined variously in different contexts. In some usage, "Management Information System" refers primarily to electronic data processing systems used for purposes such as financial accounting and inventory control. "Feedback Systems", likewise, originated in electro-mechanical system development when it was found that a piece of machinery could be made to control its own movement through an internal mechanism that reacts to certain stimuli, such as pressure or electrical contact.

The aspect of continuous control, responsive to varying degrees of stimuli, is as applicable to management controls as to machinery controls.

As indicated earlier, the designation of various management information systems as systems to control day-to-day operations, is intended primarily to illustrate the tremendous variety and sources of information available to management during normal day-to-day operations.

Because of the availability of detailed data and information, managers must know how to screen out and select items of significant interest which they can assimilate, analyze, and utilize within the normal work day. This discussion, therefore, includes aspects of techniques of the necessary analysis, summarization and presentation to the manager of facts of significance by which he can control both day-to-day and long-range operations, and upon which he may make decisions for corrections or changes (88).

In this discussion, the terms "Management Information System" and "Feedback System" are used interchangeably, and are defined to include all types and forms of data and information available to the manager. While this discussion concerns primarily those informational sources in day-to-day operations, it is not intended to exclude the usefulness of special studies, such as Cost Analysis, or Work Simplification, Work Measurement, and other one-time organizational or procedural studies conducted to give management specific information. Neither does our definition exclude electronic data processing systems which can provide either day-to-day or one-time data to inform management of the progress of operations in which they are interested. In this paper, EDP is a means of handling management information.

With so broad an interpretation, it is necessary to confine review of management information (feedback) systems to those most commonly used. To illustrate basic concepts of how information is gathered, assembled, analyzed, presented to, and used by mangement for control and decision-making, the subjects to be covered in this discussion include:

a. Financial Accounting and Reporting Systems.

b. Manpower Utilization Reporting Systems.

c. Operational Controls.

d. Management Review and Analysis.

e. Feedback Systems for Social Work Teams.

The importance of an organization's financial accounting system is thoroughly recognized. Because the literature abounds in the field of formal accounting, the following discussion pertains only to the relevance and aspects of use of financial and accounting records and reports in the context of being one of many feedback systems for management control.

a. Financial Accounting and Reporting as a Management Information Device.

Bierman explains that "to use accounting reports effectively, it is necessary for the manager...to understand that the accountant employs both explicit and implicit rules in deciding how to record financial transactions. These rules are frequently broad guidelines rather than exact specifications; thus we may expect to find several firms recording the same financial transaction in a much different manner." (124:10-3).

Accounting systems record detailed data as to income, expenses, taxes, and financial status as a means of controlling the flow of cash through the company. The owners and managers of the industrial organization are interested in the use of capital invested, in profits, resources and debts. The costs of doing business, and the complexity of corporate affairs have resulted in expansion of traditional general accounting practices into highly specialized fields, such as cost accounting, inventory accounting, manufacturing cost analysis and marketing cost analyses, all aimed at assisting the management in the evaluation and control of ongoing operations (124).

In the 1960's there was developed another modification of traditional accounting systems through what may be called "Managerial Accounting". This, in summary, involves a non-technical approach to "the use of accounting data to facilitate managerial decision making. It draws upon information commonly developed in general accounting as well as data developed in cost accounting. It gives emphasis to statement and situational analysis, stressing the need for new assemblies of data to meet changing problems " (124:10-13).

The trend of change in uses of financial data for management decision is not confined to business, but has been pursued vigorously in the Federal Program-Budget concept.

Even though governmental agencies, including those involved in social work, are not concerned with profit, taxation, or investment capital, accountability for the use of public monies is no less important. In point of fact, the requirement for governmental agencies to be strictly accountable is often greater than for the average business. For example, the business which expends in operations more than it obtains in income has several escape routes--it can borrow temporarily, it can reduce its scope of activity, move to another location, or it may eliminate itself through bankruptcy. In governmental services, the Congress, as the body authorizing expenditures by public agencies, puts strict limits (including punitive controls) on the freedom of action of the public official, so that, in fact, he cannot spend one cent more than has been authorized. The public officer cannot borrow, cannot move away, nor eliminate prescribed services, and the public agency cannot go bankrupt.

A second major difference is that while the business entity deals almost entirely with cash (or negotiable securities and documents which are convertible to cash) the governmental agency deals primarily with legal documentations authorizing disbursement of cash from central points to those entitled to payments from the government for services rendered (contracts, pay of governmental workers, payments for welfare, etc.). Governmental income takes the form, generally, of taxes, collected centrally, and in some relatively minor situations, in fees accepted from the general public for special services (entrance fees to national parks, for example).

As a result of the differences and complexity of governmental affairs, governmental accounting, and governmental financial statements, take on different forms than may be found in business practice. The major features, however, are much alike. Accounts are established and financial records maintained for the costs of labor, for purchases of supplies and equipment, for purchases of services through contracts with businesses, and for public monies otherwise received or disbursed. Controls on expenditures and receipts, as a third difference in governmental accounting practice, are often more strict than in private practice. Through legislation, certain incomes may be deposited only to specific accounts for specific use, such as for a toll bridge authority. Most governmental expenditures are limited strictly as to their use, and certain appropriations, such as for payments to foster families, might not be permitted to be used, for example, for shelter care.

The requirements of governmental accounting practice must be understood by the social worker as being realistic and essential in the public service even though they may require burdensome record-keeping.

In the typical social services activity, we can visualize certain basic financial accounting requirements to permit the program director to keep track of:

a. Labor costs.

b. Purchases of supplies and equipment.

c. Disbursements of specified funds to welfare recipients, to foster families, etc., as authorized.

d. Transfers of payments from one governmental fund to another when so authorized (such as payments for medical services obtained by a county agency from a state hospital on a reimbursement basis).

e. Payments to private contractors for services: (telephone, transportation, construction, maintenance and repair, etc.).

In addition, the social service field introduces the complexity of possible receipt of voluntary (non-cost) services by individuals and private non-profit agencies. It may be necessary, under the management structure concept, to establish records and accounts for "costing" the amount of voluntary labor, supplies and services received.

Another complexity in accounting and budgeting at the county level, for example, might involve accounting for Federal and state "matching" funds in which expenditures for a common purpose might require separating and accounting for dollar amounts of each of the Federal, state, and county level contributions.

In the performance-budget organization, these types of accounting requirements pose no particular problem. Through the management structure, the various incomes and expenditures are identified by coding systems so that they may be sorted out and segregated as to function, in addition to their formal accounting designation.

A simple example would be accounting for casework services. Based upon time expended, the social worker might record the manhours or dollar cost of his pay charged to a specific account for labor. His use of a transportation pool vehicle may be charged to specific accounts alloting the costs, in detail, to motor vehicle transportation, bridge tolls, parking fees, as applicable. Perhaps a medical examination for a foster child is involved in which a transfer of the expense must be made to another agency for that service. Each of these costs is recorded in the accounts of the servicing agency, with the transfers and payments of funds charged on detail accounts ledgers. By whatever coding system is designed, these costs may be charged, also, directly to the appropriate functional activity account in the management structure. Thus, both the formal accounting systems and the managerial accounting systems are satisfied.

Using prescribed records and reports, the program director has a number of useful financial controls available for review and analysis. He can determine:

a. Whether expenditures for specific items are properly authorized and correct.

b. Costs of specific items of interest--rising costs for maintenance of motor vehicles for social worker transportation, for example.

c. Cost of labor for each activity.

d. Costs of supplies, equipment and contractual services, in detail, and overall.

e. That expenditures for restricted items are not exceeded.

f. That cash handled in the operation is secure and fully accounted for.

g. That higher authority requirements for accounting records and reports are being met.

h. That requirements for audits of funds are met.

i. That funds authorized for expenditures are being utilized in terms of purpose and in accordance with time schedules prescribed.

j. That fees or other income are being received and administered properly.

k. That legal limitations applicable are complied with in the use of funds and supplies or equipment.

These considerations, among others, are matters of vital concern to the program director or manager, since, ultimately, he is held fully (and usually personally) responsible for accounting and fund controls, as well as for professional quality of services and other administration.

Managerial use of financial accounting and reporting systems, particularly in the performance-budget system, requires emphasis on the areas of integrity of accounts and the training of employees.

First, the integrity of the accounting system is primary. The manager must assure that accounting practices are followed as prescribed, that financial records and reports are complete, accurate and timely. The financial system must be maintained under control to assure that it can pass audits and inspections. Security of cash and of supplies and equipment is an inherent responsibility. Property records must be maintained, and inventory controlled and safeguarded against loss, theft, or misuse. Timeliness in public agency accounting, in particular, often is critical, when appropriations are legislated on fiscal year bases.

Secondly, the performance-budget system requires that every employee be trained specifically to understand how, when and why he is to make accounting and reporting entries on the records and reports required of him. Errors,

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omissions, inaccuracies, if not controlled continuously, can impair the accounting system.

For assurance of adequacy of the accounting and financial reporting system under his jurisdiction, the manager must establish a series of personal inspection actions. He must:

a. Establish periodic unannounced inspections of the financial and accounting control systems, such as count of cash in cashiers' custody, inspection of security of supplies, desk audit of various accounting processes, etc.

b. Establish groups of financial reports and records from which summaries may be obtained on a periodic basis, such as monthly reports of the status of funds, assuring that accounting is up to date and that cumulative income and expenditures are recorded.

c. Perform (at least annually) a comprehensive audit of the total accounting and reporting system (usually this is standard practice in most public service agencies), to detect inadequacies and to maintain integrity.

d. Provide for periodic sampling of accounts and records (case files) to assure employee compliance with required recording and reporting requirements. (This is especially important in cases where electronic data processing systems have been established for social work, and the financial records are dependent upon employee input.)

Other aspects of the analysis of financial accounts and reports are discussed under the subject of "Management Review and Analysis", indicating how these are used to provide the manager with financial data related to the total management of the organization.

b. Manpower Utilization Reporting Systems.

Since manpower constitutes a major cost and the major means of doing work in the social services, management attention to this resource must be a daily first priority.

Assuring maximum utilization of manpower involves a number of sometimes conflicting and difficult-to-coordinate considerations for the manager. These consist of:

Availability of personnel.

Professional skills needed versus those available.

Training for improving skills and for personnel development.

Authorizations or fund limitations versus requirements for manpower.

Effective use of time of personnel.

Motivation and administration.

One rather comprehensive review of the aspects of manpower in social service work is the series of articles in the April 1969 issue of the Journal of the American Public Welfare Association (121). The emphasis on the various aspects of recruitment, training, use and retention of manpower is the typical emphasis on obtaining the best degree of service from the people who do the work. Other publications, such as HEW's "Differential Use of Staff in Family and Child Welfare Services", (175), and "Cost Analysis in Child Welfare Services" (160), stress specific techniques or means of increasing productivity of social workers.

The control by management over the utilization of manpower is a common day-to-day operational necessity. Perhaps the most basic and well-known daily control over manpower utilization is the "time-clock" approach used in factory and large business organization as a means of assuring that payment for labor is not lost through absence of the worker.

Another form of control to assure that unnecessary personnel are not employed and become an unproductive cost, is that of "personnel space authorization" by which most governmental agencies, in particular, limit employment to certain numbers and skills of personnel based on some form of workload experience or skill requirement.

Control of the skills needed in an organization often is accomplished through formal training programs and testing programs (such as apprentice training) whereby only those with appropriate skills are employed in specific positions.

Review of the work of employees is another type of manpower utilization control. The "Quality Control" inspection line in a factory production process is a familiar example--the purpose being to assure that the worker performs his duties in an acceptable manner. All types of inspections of work performed, including follow-up and other types of reports and reviews of completed or in-process work, assure management not only that acceptable quality products are being produced, but that costs for labor are minimized.

Assuring that employee time is fully productive is one benefit of work-measurement, work simplification, and related time-study controls. The objective is to assure that the employee's working time results in maximum productivity.

Maintaining employee motivation is a continuous managerial duty. Effective promotional and personnel administration programs are managerial controls to prevent loss of trained personnel through dissatisfaction, and to provide the organization with continuity and effective continuing service. Morale-building programs, bonuses, prizes, personal recognition programs, also are managerial controls to assure that personnel operate at their most productive level. The rate of pay of workers is a primary consideration in maintaining morale.

Since productivity is a key consideration in the performance-budget organization, being related to the workloads and the cost of accomplishing workloads, the program director or manager requires a number of specific controls to assure himself that manpower needs are met and that those personnel employed are contributing effectively towards accomplishment of agency goals and objectives.

Of importance to the manager, then, is the development of a system of manpower utilization (feedback) controls to keep him informed of the status of manpower production. Among these should be:

a. Daily attendance records or summaries.

b. Personnel charts showing status of employment of all persons, by pay rate, skill and other desired categories.

c. Production records indicating workloads produced, daily, weekly, monthly, etc.

d. Training records of individuals to indicate progress and fulfillment of the agency training program.

e. Reports on personnel actions; turnover, hiring, firing, losses of personnel, and reasons therefor, etc.

f. Reports of costs of manpower against budgeted amounts.

g. A system of inspections, follow-up or audits to detect sub-standard performance (quality) and reasons therefor.

h. Systems providing standard procedures for doing work, standard job descriptions upon which to base pay of persons with different skills and doing different types of work, against which standards of manpower performance may be gauged.

i. Systems to identify particularly effective employees for recognition or promotion (morale-building), and for organizational improvement (continuity and experience).

j. Efficiency controls, such as work simplification, work measurement systems and standards against which to measure personnel productivity.

Of particular importance in the "team" concept is the necessity for close control over the use of the time of individuals of the team and the necessary coordination of the work assigned to individual team members to prevent loss of productive time and effort. The team leader, in addition to being concerned with professional services being given to the client, must always be aware of, and responsible for, control of productivity. He will be concerned greatly with day-to-day problems of attendance (sick leave, vacation scheduling, attention to duty); training (skills to be developed); morale (discipline, working conditions); application of time of individuals (assignments); and inspection of quality of service.

No less concerned will be the next higher level of supervision in such broader aspects of manpower management as transfers of individual team members from one duty, or one team, to another, to make better use of skills, or to fill gaps caused by absences, losses of personnel, and other day-to-day production problems. Higher levels of supervision will become concerned with costs of labor productivity as well as quality and will monitor closely such factors as the most desirable ratio and uses of MSW skills against non-MSW positions in the team structure, etc.

At the top level of management, the problems inherent in manpower control are broader, such as maintaining an effective recruitment system to fill losses promptly and with needed skills; a training program to insure progressive improvement in productivity and as a base for continuity of the organization; and overall organization and re-organization actions to effect maximum use of available manpower and skills.

Not mentioned, but equally important to the controls on manpower productivity, are management programs for precluding loss of productive time because of avoidable accidents, sickness and other crises. A chart showing illness rates and absences, for example, can be informative to management that perhaps employees are making excessive use of sick leave, or it may indicate that a program offering "flu shots" might improve attendance through illness prevention.

Similarly, disciplinary controls are essential for productivity, morale, and safety, among other reasons.

All of the above considerations relate to the effective and maximum utilization of manpower and are important particularly under the program-budget and team service concepts.

c. Operational Controls.

The importance of management attention to and control over financial affairs of the organization and of control over manpower utilization has been mentioned. These can be considered, in one sense, as being parts of the overall concept of operational control. By operational control in this study, however, we mean the conduct of the day-to-day actions which result in work being performed according to the goals and objectives that management has established. In this sense, we shall discuss the means by which management fulfills its major role, the control of production of the end-product--whether a product or a service--and keeps itself informed of the status of affairs.

We have mentioned the two phases of workload control--to assure that whatever quantity of work has been established as an objective is accomplished within the time limits prescribed--and to assure that the work product meets prescribed standards of quality.

Managerial considerations in maintaining operational control include development of:

a. Reports of workloads produced during daily, weekly, monthly and longer-period time stages, measured against quantities established as objectives.

b. Reports to assure that proper quality of work results from the expenditures of man or machine time.

c. Reports on progress to assure coordination of efforts of different organizational entities to preclude time, supplies or other resources from being wasted.

d. Reports on effectiveness of processes, methods or procedures to preclude waste time and motion or to assure quality maintenance.

e. Reports on availability and distributions of workloads and resources to assure proper balance of operations to meet goals.

Management literature abounds in sophisticated managerial techniques and reporting systems for maintaining daily operational control. Of great importance among these is the assurance of coordination of operations among activities. Modern business, for example, no longer can permit the type of operation common in earlier days, when the sales division might outsell the capability of the manufacturing plant. In the program-budget concept, the program document is designed particularly to effect operational coordination and control. Thus, in the social service context, management is interested in daily and other periodic reports on the numbers and status of caseloads processed as related to the availability and utilization of manpower and other resources.

Quality of services can be assured by inspection, or by special reviews of reports indicating, for example, the number of days elapsed between opening and processing of new cases, and by follow-up and inspection of files, records and reports, to determine adequacy of professional treatment.

How the manager controls daily operations depends greatly upon the demands on his time, the size of staff available to him for such control; physical distances and locations which he must cover; and other limitations.

For the manager to make effective use of his own time, therefore, requires him to establish a number of systems for daily operational control. Among these information-gathering (feedback) devices are:

a. Personal physical inspections of operations and facilities on a scheduled, periodic basis, so that each operation receives management attention on a regular basis.

b. Development of an operational reporting system designed to provide key summary data on details of daily production. Trends in production become available through analysis to indicate decreases or increases in quantity or quality over a period of time.

c. Unscheduled sampling of end-products to determine quality can be effected by use of one-time reports and one-time special inspections and studies. In social work, for example, the frequency and types of client complaints is a useful indicator.

d. Periodic staff meetings of key supervisors to discuss day-to-day problems and to present to the manager certain key data on production. Such meetings also have the beneficial aspect of assuring continued coordination among various departments or teams, and permit the manager to issue day-to-day guidance as conditions indicate.

e. Development of a periodic, comprehensive review and analysis system (discussed at more length in Section E.3d, following). Review and analysis systems provide fully coordinated and comprehensive long-range reviews of all aspects of operations.

Among the many operational consideration of the manager are those which affect production by limiting it. The manager must be attentive to mundane daily problems, such as:

a. Physical facility adequacy--location, placement, condition and use of equipment, such as tables, chairs, desks, motor vehicles, office supplies, heat, water, light, security. If motor vehicles are pooled, for example, there must be a tight usage control system so that sufficient transportation is available and used economically for the workload [illegible] and. Procurement of supplies and

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equipment must include consideration of lead times. Supply systems must permit replenishment supplies to be obtained before the last item is used up.

b. Unexpected changes. There should exist a formal plan of alternate operations for emergency or unusual situations. Strikes by hospital employees in a local area might require shifting this service to another county--and arrangements for this sort of emergency must be made in advance. Shortages of supplies or equipment due to failures such as vendor or manufacturing delays must be met by plans to utilize substitute items or processes. Emergency situation reporting systems should be established with reports to be submitted by responsible activity directors whenever conditions indicate that significant problems in operations will occur through unusual events.

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d. Management Review and Analysis System.

The discussion thus far has emphasized how "feedback" information can be developed for use by management primarily for controlling day-to-day operations. It can be observed readily that a manager or program director might be hard put to assimilate and absorb the tremendous amounts of detailed data available from daily financial accounts, manpower and other operational reports. Certainly, these are used, and intended to be used, for management decision and control of on-going operations. At some point in time, however, it becomes necessary for the manager to obtain a different perspective of progress to assure that all of the daily actions are being coordinated and continue to be aimed at achievement of long-range organizational goals and objectives.

Particularly for this purpose, the Management Review and Analysis System was designed to provide the busy manager with a periodic, overall, comprehensive and coordinated view of the progress of all operations towards goals. The program-budget system is designed to facilitate this type of "long-range" review, as distinguished from the day-to-day feedback system of control.

The type of information and data to be presented to the manager or program director in a Management Review and Analysis can be categorized as being of a summary (significant) nature. From the detailed data and reports discussed previously, the manager (or his Program-Budget Branch staff) prepares a series of standardized charts or tables of key data showing various aspects of performance and progress against the specific goals and objectives prescribed in the program document.

An example of the difference in treatment between the daily operational type of report and a summary analysis type of report might be illustrative of the concept. For example, the program director may have seen daily attendance reports indicating absences of social workers and administrative employees for various reasons, and upon which he has made daily decisions to shift work, to defer work, or to transfer personnel temporarily to resolve the day's particular problem. In the review and analysis context, a summary chart or table can be prepared showing the number of man-days lost through various types of absences, such as for illness or vacation. A rate of normal sick leave experience can be derived as a gauge for determining whether employee sick leave is greater or less than normal. Excessive use of sick leave might indicate to the manager a need to monitor sick leave authorizations more closely to prevent abuse of the privilege. Thus, the review and analysis concept provides a somewhat different type of control for management, and becomes an additional feedback system to assure long-range coordination and control of progress of all operations.

The major principles of the Management Review and Analysis System indicate its benefits:

a. The Management Review and Analysis is a formal, periodic, scheduled, assembly and presentation to the manager by activity directors of key data and information on progress of their operations in terms of specific goals and objectives. (By periodic is meant that the review is conducted at regular prescribed intervals, monthly or quarterly, as best suits the organizational needs.)

b. While the manager may specify the types of information he desires, the program document goals and objectives become basic points of reference by which activity directors develop data. The review covers, at one single time, each and all of the major activities and gives the manager the advantage of assessing at one time the coordination and extent of progress of the entire organization and its parts.

c. The conduct of the review is treated as a formal staff conference and the manager uses the review as a means of detecting problem areas, assessing adequacy of performance, and providing guidance and direction to correct problems, shift workloads or change policy or procedures. (In fact, a key benefit and use of the review and analysis system is that it permits the manager to issue corrective guidance on the spot, and to assess, at future reviews, the impact of such guidance. It provides a follow-up of his "directed actions" to assure that positive actions are taken to correct deficiencies noted during the prior review.)

In relating this feedback system to the team concept of social service delivery systems, it can be visualized that:

a. Preparation and conduct of the periodic review and analysis would be a responsibility and function of the "Program and Budget Branch" which would develop standardized charts, provide advice and guidance to team leaders or activity directors on context and key data to be presented, and be responsible for documentation of the manager's guidance for follow-up actions.

b. Each activity director and team leader presents a brief oral review, using such charts and visual aids as needed, indicating progress of his level of organization against the prescribed goals and objectives or standards of service established for his unit.

c. The manager obtains from this review a comprehensive, fully coordinated, picture of what the various elements of his organization have accomplished, and he may question subordinates freely and provide guidance on problem areas.

For successful implementation of this concept of long-range feedback there are a number of important principles to be followed:

a. Data and information must be summarized into meaningful, simple and clearly-presented categories relating progress to objectives and goals. Trends showing increasing or decreasing workloads are important. Utilization of resources against planned time and quantity goals provide comparisons which reveal potential problems before they become serious. Data presented are those which may be considered as having a significant impact on the organization. Day-to-day details are avoided.

b. Visual aids are important--these may be prepared by a trained illustrator, if available, or may be simple, neat tables or charts prepared by team leaders. (A few examples of the types of charts which can be prepared for a formal review and analysis presentation are included in following pages.) It is important that preparation of visual aids be coordinated by the Program-Budget Branch so that they are standardized--for example, column charts which show progress against goals should all be of uniform format, with the same colors and symbols used to indicate progress, goals, etc. Methods of presentation of visual material may vary from use of printed or typed handout documents to elaborate color slide projection, but the major principle is to provide the manager with a simple and clear picture of the topic under discussion.

c. The oral presentation by the team leader or activity director should come directly to the point of discussion of the chart or visual aid. Such presentations should be brief and enhance what the chart shows. If a problem is indicated, the context of the presentation should state the problem clearly and the presenter should include his recommendations for its solution, for consideration by the manager.

d. A formal schedule of actions should be developed by the Program-Budget Branch providing detailed guidance for development of data, method of presentation, standardization of charts, and key dates by which preparatory actions must be completed. The periodic review must be scheduled at a time convenient to the manager, and should specify a cut-off date (such as the end of a calendar month) for the data and information to be used. The presentation must be scheduled at the earliest possible time following the cut-off date for the information, in order that the presentation be current and useful. If delays occur, provision should be made for the staff to update data before the presentation.

e. Prior to the formal presentation to the manager, a "dress rehearsal" should be conducted. The usefulness of such rehearsals must not be minimized. It is during the rehearsal that coordination is effected when each team leader or activity director is able to see what the others are presenting as problems. For example, Team Leader "A" might blame his lack of progress on lack of funds, whereas the budget director may be showing that overall fund utilization is low for the period under discussion. The importance of thrashing out the problems at the rehearsal is that presentations then become coordinated and the manager need not iron out differences of opinion before making a decision on a problem presented to him for guidance.

f. The Program-Budget Branch, as monitor, records the guidance issued by the manager during the formal presentation, and develops a follow-up system to assure that the guidance is acted upon. This can be done, for example, by publication of a staff memorandum containing the manager's guidance, and requiring that each directed action be discussed at the next presentation to assure the manager that action has been taken, and the results achieved.

Once established, the formal, periodic, Management Review and Analysis presentation becomes an invaluable "feedback" system assuring coordinated control of all operations. It does not substitute for, nor conflict with, daily operational management information reports. Rather, it provides a considered review--and most importantly, a thorough analysis--of each operation, and its effect on the total organizational progress. It provides the manager with one of the most powerful management tools yet devised. It is flexible and can be tailored to the manager's needs and special interests, and it focuses management attention on areas of significance, saving his time and effort. Of major importance is that this system forces facts to the surface and this assists management in making valid decisions based on a considered analysis of the progress of operations.

The example charts following illustrate the possibilities for clear, summary-type, key data to be presented to management.

With regard to management information systems as a whole, one excellent treatment in larger agencies which have facilities to support such an activity, is to establish a small chart room (or a loose-leaf Deskbook) containing special charts of interest to the manager, such as daily attendance, caseloads, status of funds and related information to which ready reference is desirable.

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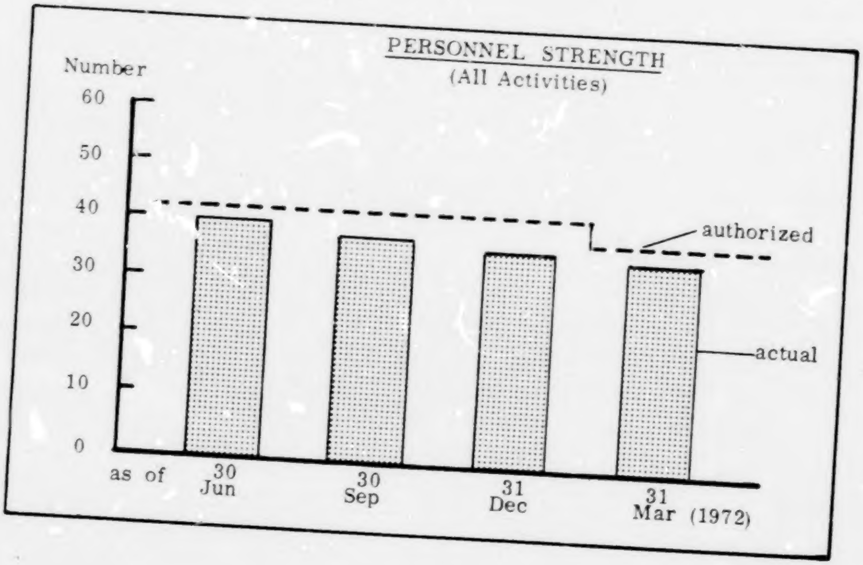
Example Chart for a
Child Welfare Division
Review and Analysis Presentation

Topic: MANPOWER RESOURCES



Example Discussion (As of 31 March 1972 in this case)

Through 31 December 1971, we were authorized 42 spaces for the Child Welfare Division. Because of budget reductions, the authorization was reduced to 38 for the end of March 1972. In anticipation of this reduction, we placed a hiring freeze in effect on last 30 June. By attrition we now have been reduced in actual strength to 35 personnel as of 31 March. It is recommended that the hiring freeze now be lifted to permit hiring three social workers. The budget director states that funds are available.

Example Chart for a
Child Welfare Division
Review and Analysis Presentation

Topic: STATUS OF FUNDS

STATUS OF FUNDS
(Dollars in Thousands)

Purpose (Program)*	Available 1 Jan 72	Used Thru 31 Mar 72	% Used	Over or (Short)
Foster Care	153.2	38.3	25.0	----
Adoption	75.0	25.0	33.3	(6.3)
Shelter Care	70.1	10.1	14.4	7.4
Administration	12.3	4.1	33.3	(1.0)
Supplies and Equipment	10.4	2.8	25.0	----

*Partial listing for illustration only.

Example Discussion:

This chart shows expenditures of funds through March 31, 1972. Planned expenditures were for 25% of available funds to be utilized by that time. As shown in the right hand column, a significant shortage threatens in "Adoption" funds, which were 33.3% utilized, leaving only $50,000 to carry through the next three quarters, whereas we need $56,250. Thus we are short $6300 in that program. The major reason for this over-expenditure was the recent emphasis on the adoption program which resulted in placements and related expenses greater than anticipated.

Shelter Care funds, however, were not utilized to full extent and we have a significant balance of $7.4 thousand in that program. Underutilization of these funds, however, is attributed to failure to complete contract arrangements for repair of the shelter building roof. This is expected to be accomplished in the 2d Quarter.

The $1,000 shortage in the Administration area is not significant. It reflects costs of supply deliveries which were effected in the 1st Quarter instead of after March 31.

In summary, the major problem is the shortage of $6300 in Adoption funds. We expect, however, that the workload of adoptions will drop significantly in the next three quarters and recommend a review of this area at the next quarterly presentation to see if further action is warranted at that time.

Example Chart for a
Child Welfare Division
Review and Analysis Presentation

Topic: CASELOADS--BY TEAM AREA

TEAM CASELOADS
(1st Quarter 1972)

Activity * Code	Type of Case	Team I-A	Team I-B	Team II-A
1000.11000	Counseling and Guidance	62	120	65
.12000	Protective Services	32	29	12
.13000	Financial and Other Direct Aid	173	242	72
.13100	(Direct Funds)	(70)	(110)	(51)
.13200	(Homemaker)	(21)	(49)	(9)
.13300	(Day Care)	(82)	(83)	(12)
	Totals	267	391	149

*See Management Structure

Example Discussion:

This chart compares caseloads of the three teams for the 1st Quarter, 1972, by type of case. The largest proportion of caseloads occurs in the area of providing financial and other direct aid. The Team I-A total workload is representative of that area. The low total caseload count for Team II-A and the high caseload for Team I-B indicate a need for us to undertake a study to determine whether to redistrict the geographical boundary between the two teams, or to shift some manpower from Team II-A to Team I-B.

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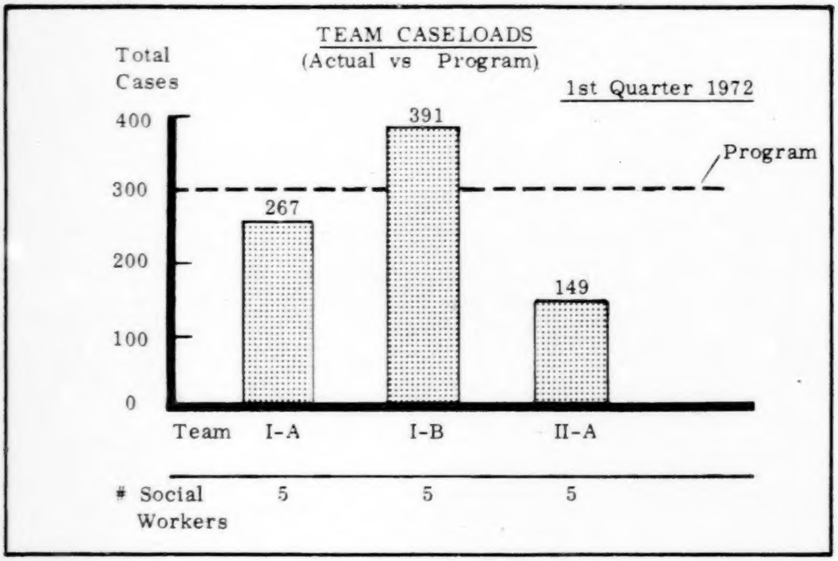
Example Chart for a
Child Welfare Division
Review and Analysis Presentation

Topic: CASELOADS COMPARED TO PROGRAM

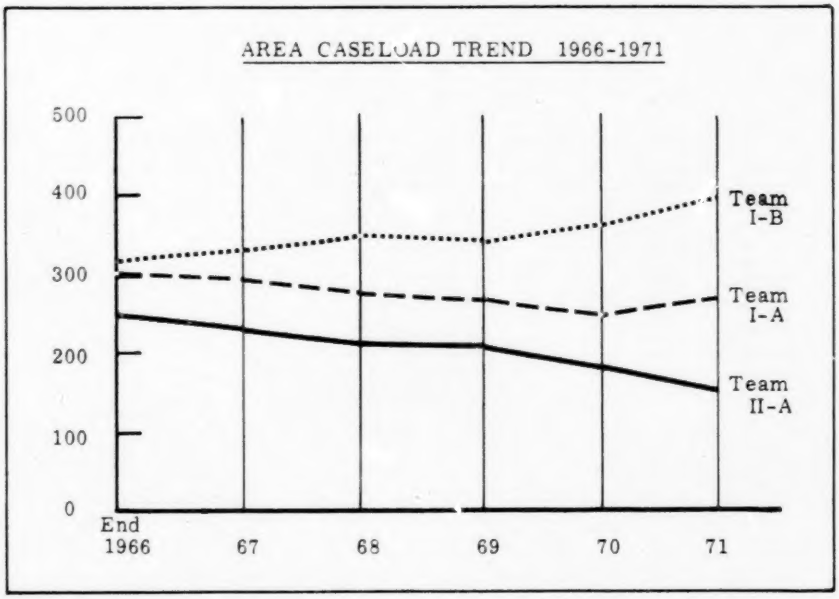


Example Discussion

In terms of total caseloads, this chart shows better the imbalance of manpower and caseloads between Teams I-B and II-A. If a study indicates that this situation will continue, we would propose revising the programs for these teams accordingly and adjusting team manpower to suit. One indicator that this may occur is the next chart showing the trend of cases over the past five years in these areas.

Example Chart for a
Child Welfare Division
Review and Analysis Presentation

Topic: CASELOADS--5-YEAR TREND



Example Discussion

This chart confirms our suspicions that the caseload for Team II-A is dropping and is likely to remain low. The similar long-trend rise in load for Team I-B also is indicative that it will continue at a level closer to 400 than 300.

Our study will take into account, however, possible differences in time factors for service to persons in the Team II-A area and the unit processing time for Team I-B. We shall make suitable recommendations at the next quarterly presentation.

e. Feedback Systems for Social Work Teams.

The preceding discussions of Management Information Systems (Feedback Systems) introduced the general concepts and procedures applicable to such systems. Of particular concern in this study is the application of a useful feedback system for management of the social work team.

At the team level, the managerial information system necessarily centers on the control of direct services--casework. The team leader must maintain close control over day-to-day social work actions so that he may assure both qualitative and quantitative production in accordance with the goals and objectives established for the team and for each case assigned to the team.

It is this area of social work control which is a prevalent weakness in current practice. A major problem is the failure to continue or to complete actions on cases within a reasonable time frame. The failure to establish a meaningful plan of action, and to carry out the plan within a practical time frame minimizes the effectiveness of social work. The foster child who is moved from one foster home to another at frequent intervals because no one has made a final decision on where to place him becomes an adult without ever having obtained the service he needed most--a permanent home in which to grow up.

In the team concept it is essential that a feedback system be established at the team level which will assure that:

a. The data and information needed for action on the case are obtained on a timely basis, early in the case, so that a decisive plan of action may be formulated.

b. The plan of action is practical and can be implemented within a reasonable time frame suitable for the particular case.

c. Actions to implement the plan are reviewed at frequent intervals to assure the continuity and adequacy of services, or to modify the goals and services as needed.

d. The goal established for the case is achieved within a reasonable time frame for that case.

The team leader, therefore, must establish for his own use, a relatively simple, yet comprehensive, feedback system which will serve to keep him informed of the status of every case under his jurisdiction. The basic elements of such a system are contained first in the case file itself, and secondly, in development of periodic reviews and summary records and reports of workloads accomplished.

The need for developing specific case-file record and report formats was discussed earlier in connection with team case reviews. The case file must be complete, yet brief and meaningful. In the team organization, procedures must be established to control file content by assuring that each action by various team members becomes a part of the file so that all actions are chronologically entered, and are complete.

Following are examples of simple case file formats and team workload records and reports which can be utilized by the team leader as a set of feedback controls on work of the team. (These are relatively simplified examples to illustrate basic requirements only. A number of agencies using computerized case control systems have developed highly detailed and sophisticated case data systems. All such case record systems serve the common purpose of assuring managerial control over the quality and quantity of the social work effort.)

a. Case File Forms. First, the case file can be standardized by use of a simple set of control sheets such as are illustrated on the following pages. The case file can be designed to incorporate:

(1). An Initial Interview Record, which contains basic information about the client, for identity and summarization of the case problem. This form becomes a control for workload count of "New Cases".

(2). Additional essential documentation (not illustrated), such as detailed medical and individual case history forms, legal papers, correspondence, and memoranda (placed in file in chronological order, generally with newest material being placed on top).

(3). Case Action Record, filed chronologically, outlining (summarizing) each action subsequent to the initial interview, and indicating the date and team member contacting the client.

(4). Six-month Diagnostic Summary, for semi-annual review of each case, indicating the status of the case, an evaluation, and approved recommendations for future action.

(5). A Final Disposition Record, indicating the date and reason for termination of services. Upon approval by the team leader, this form transfers the case file to inactive or closed status.

EXAMPLE CASE FILE FORMS

INITIAL INTERVIEW RECORD

Explanation of Form

This form provides essential identification information concerning the client, his spouse and dependents -- names, addresses, ages, etc.

The type of case is indicated, using the categories (activities, subactivities, or elements) provided in the Management Structure.

A summary remark space permits identification of the nature of the case, for ready reference.

The purpose of the form is to establish minimum information to identify the case and its principals, to assure that the team coordinator is assigned and the team leader informed whenever a new case has been assigned to the team.

By requiring review by the team leader of the form for each new case file, a firm and systematic case control procedure is established. The team leader must initial or sign each new case Initial Interview Record before it is placed in the file by the team secretary. Generally, a 24-hour limit could be established for completion of this form, review by the team leader, and placement in the file by the team secretary, to assure timely processing.

Additional documents pertinent to the initial interview may be attached to this form for team leader review and placed in file as part of the initial interview process.

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INITIAL INTERVIEW RECORD

DATE: ____________ of initial interview CASE No. ____________

Assigned to: ____________

CLIENT: Last name First name Middle name Social Security No.

Mail address City State ZIP Telephone

SPOUSE: Last name First name Middle name Social Security No.

Address, if different from Client Telephone

Client date of birth: ____________ Spouse date of birth: ____________

DEPENDENTS: Last Name First Name Middle Initial SSN DoBirth

TYPE OF CASE:

Code		Title	Code		Title
1000.11000	__	Counseling & Guidance	.21000	__	Shelter Care
.12000	__	Protective Services	.22000	__	Residential Treatment
.13100	__	Direct Fund Assistance	.23000	__	Institutional Care
.13200	__	Homemaker Services	.24000	__	Foster Care
.13300	__	Day Care Services	.25000	__	Adoption
______	__	Other ____________			

CASE INTERVIEW SUMMARY:

Prepared by: ____________ Reviewed by: ____________

Team Intake Interviewer

Team Leader

Date: ____________

CASE ACTION RECORD

Explanation of Form

This format provides a means by which each social worker or team member may document actions taken during each contact with the client subsequent to the initial interview.

The format identifies the case by client name and case number, and the team member taking action. A brief summary of the action taken during the visit or contact is provided. Detailed data, such as medical examination records, detailed case history formats and other documentation obtained or resulting from the action, are appended to this form. This form, with appended documentation, would be filed in next chronological order (latest case action record on top) in the case file.

The team member preparing the Case Action Record transmits it to the team secretary for typing, or other administrative action. In turn, the secretary routes the form to the case coordinator and team leader, in that order, to assure that each becomes aware of the contact and actions taken.

The purpose of the form is to assure a systematic control for coordination among team members and to assure that the case coordinator is kept informed when other members of the team become involved in case actions.

CASE ACTION RECORD

DATE: ________________ CASE No. ______________

CLIENT: ____
Last name First Middle SSN

CONTACTED BY: ______________________________
Team member

SUMMARY OF CASE ACTION:

REVIEWED: ________ date ________________ Team case coordinator

________ date ________________ Team case coordinator

Placed in File: ____________ date

By: ____________

SIX-MONTH DIAGNOSTIC SUMMARY

Explanation of Form

The Six-Month Diagnostic Summary, basically a first page of the diagnostic evaluation record, provides a summary indicating the current case status, the goal, an evaluation, and recommendations based upon the review of the case. Additional narrative, discussion and evaluation of the case can be added, as additional pages.

This form could be printed on colored paper for ready identification in the file folder.

A space is provided for approval of the recommendations by the team leader prior to placing the form in the file.

The Six-Month Diagnostic Summary is a required, mandatory form and review. It provides assurance that each case is carefully evaluated every six months while it is active, and that meaningful recommendations for the next period are developed and are approved specifically by the team leader.

SIX-MONTH DIAGNOSTIC SUMMARY

DATE:______________ CASE No.______________

CLIENT: Last name First Middle SSN

CASE REVIEW:

Type of Case: 1000.______________________________
Code Title

Initial Interview:______________ ______________
Date Case Coordinator

Case Goal:

Current Status:

Summary Evaluation:

Recommendations:

PREPARED BY: ______________ Placed in File:______________
Case Coordinator date

Recommendations Approved:______________ By:______________
Team Leader Date Team Secretary

FINAL DISPOSITION RECORD

Explanation of Form

This control record provides a means of assuring that no case is placed in an inactive or closed file status without the knowledge and approval of the team leader.

Printed on colored paper, it serves as a "flag" indicating that final action on the case has been taken and that the case file may be retired to the inactive or closed records. Use of this form permits the team leader to establish the workload count of "Cases Closed", as prescribed in the Management Structure.

Once this form is placed in the case file folder, the file is considered closed and no other documentation is permitted to be added. If the case is re-opened for any reason at a later date, a completely new file is started, using the previously described Initial Interview Record as a base. The closed file of prior actions may be appended to the new file, or cross-referenced, as appropriate.

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FINAL DISPOSITION RECORD

DATE: ____________ CASE No. ____________

CLIENT: Last name First Middle SSN

Initial Interview Date: ____________ ____________ Case Coordinator

Type of Case: 1000. Code Title

Termination Date: ____________

Reasons for Final Disposition:

FINAL DISPOSITION APPROVED: ____________ Date ____________ Team Leader Signature

Placed in File: ____________ Date

By: ____________ Team Secretary

INSTRUCTIONS: When this form is filed as top sheet in case file, NO OTHER DOCUMENTS WILL BE ADDED.

THIS CASE IS TRANSFERRED TO INACTIVE FILES. If further actions are taken after the above final disposition date, a NEW case file will be opened, and this complete file will be placed under the INITIAL INTERVIEW RECORD of the NEW case file, or it may be cross-referenced on the INITIAL INTERVIEW RECORD of the NEW case file.

b. Team Control Forms. The team leader, in addition to case file controls, needs some means of visual summary control by which he may review periodically the status of actions on each case, and determine whether progress is being made in handling the over-all workload of the team. Example formats follow illustrating a few possibilities:

(1). A Case Control Register, for control of caseloads and case files.

(2). A Team Case Review Schedule, to assure monthly reviews of cases in process.

(3). A Daily Workload Record, indicating the caseloads and man-hours expended by each member of the team each day.

(4). A Monthly Team Workload Report, summarizing the workload and manhour expenditures of the team during the given period.

(5). A Team Workload Trend Chart, indicating the long-term (annual) trend of team intake and work accomplishment (New Cases, Closed Cases, and Backlog).

In addition to these formats, the formal Management Review and Analysis procedure discussed earlier serves to produce other summary charts and information on team progress, workload accomplishment and resource utilization, among other managerial considerations. All of these are means for keeping the team leader abreast of team operations and assuring that the objectives and goals of the team are being accomplished, as well as those for individual cases.

EXAMPLE TEAM CONTROL FORMS

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TEAM CASE CONTROL REGISTER

Explanation of Form

This form, maintained by the team secretary, provides a control over every case assigned to the team.

At the time of the initial interview, the team secretary assigns a serial case number and establishes a Case File Folder, with an Initial Interview Record. The intake interviewer completes the Initial Interview Record, and when it is returned to the team secretary, she completes the information on the Case Control Register. While the case goal, target date for final disposition, and type of case, might not be known until some time later, the secretary's entry on the Case Control Register of the initial interview date, assignment of a case number, and case (client) name, creates a means of case control.

This form becomes a permanent record and assures that cases are not "lost" through missing file folders or lack of documentation. The form assists the team leader by indicating, in the column provided, the date of final disposition of a case, and which cases are still in process. The target date for final disposition provides a gauge to identify lagging cases by comparison with current date of review, and with initial interview date.

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PAGE No. ________ CASE CONTROL REGISTER TEAM No. ________

Initial Interview Date	Case No.	Client Name	Case Coordinator	Type of Case	Case Goal	Target Date for Final Disposition	Final Disposition Date

TEAM CASE REVIEW SCHEDULE

Explanation of Form

This form, prepared monthly by the team secretary, lists all cases shown on the Case Control Register as being still in process (that is, cases which do not have a final disposition date entered on the Control Register Form). Thus, a monthly review schedule is obtained assuring that every case not completed is reviewed during the succeeding month.

The case review need not be a lengthy process, but completion of the form assures that no case is overlooked. Any decisions made on a particular case may be summarized in the Remarks section of the form, and details and other documentation resulting from the case review would be filed in the case file folder. Team case reviews, as applicable, may be documented by use of the Case Action Record, described previously.

The Team Case Review Schedule indicates the dates of "Initial Interview", of the "Last Review", and provides space for the date of the "Current Review". Comparison of these dates during team reviews indicates lagging cases requiring attention.

This form provides the team leader with the size of backlog of cases in process. Also, by the number of cases entered on the form, it provides an indicator of the amount of time needed to be scheduled for team case reviews during the coming month

MONTH:__________________19____

TEAM CASE REVIEW SCHEDULE

TEAM No.______________

Case No.	Client Name	Type of Case	Initial Interview	Last Review	This Review	Remarks

DAILY WORKLOAD RECORD

Explanation of Form

This form provides a record of manhours expended by each team member in daily case processing, with cases identified by the same categorization as provided in the Management Structure. This type of form would be necessary to develop workload data for the program-budget management system described in this study. In addition, it provides the team leader with a daily indicator of the work performed by the members of the team.

The form is simple and readily completed by each member of the team. Additional data desired for daily workload control may be entered by revision of the form as needed. Daily summary sheets for the team as a whole could be developed and maintained by the team secretary to indicate total workloads, using the same general format.

The form accounts only for productive time expended on social work and administration. Sick or annual leave and other non-productive time would appear normally in separate personnel time and attendance records.

(Large agencies might consider the use of work-sampling techniques to determine manhours applied to functional areas and to social work. This approach reduces the daily recording of individual manhour expenditures in favor of less frequent recording as a means of reducing administrative effort.)

DAILY WORKLOAD RECORD

DATE: 22 June 1973 TEAM MEMBER: A.D. KUPERSTEIN

ACTIVITY CODE (See Management Structure)	Case No.	MANHOURS								Totals
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
1000.11000 Counseling & Guidance										
1000.12000 Protective Services										
1000.13100 Direct Fund Assistance										
1000.13200 Homemaker Services										
1000.13300 Day Care Services										
1000.21000 Shelter Care										
1000.22000 Residential Treatment										
1000.23000 Institutional Care										
1000.24000 Foster Home Care	00248 00312	X X	X							3
1000.25000 Adoption Services	00397 00419	X X	X	X						4
1000.30000 Administration		X								1
										8

REMARKS: Case No. 00397 required home visit to inspect and Counsel adoptive parents. Time includes 1 hour transportation.

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MONTHLY TEAM WORKLOAD REPORT

Explanation of Form

To meet requirements of the Management Structure for workload counts, a monthly team workload report provides a means of categorizing cases in the types prescribed by the Management Structure, and indicating how many are still in process (backlog), how many were closed during the month, how many new cases were initiated, how many reviewed, and the total manhours of team activity in each functional area.

Additional summarization data might be added as desired.

This summarization of workload identifies for the team leader the types of workloads, and indicates trends of work accomplishment of the team as a whole.

Additional charts plotting these data by month throughout the year would provide trend and quantitative data needed for workload control. A rising trend of new cases might serve to alert the team leader that team processing must be speeded up or that additional personnel might be required. The relative frequency of types of cases might indicate need to focus more manpower and attention on certain types of cases.

A comparison of expenditure of manhours in each of the functional areas also serves to indicate where major amounts of manpower of the team are expended or needed. Manhour/case ratios in each functional area could be derived from this type of record, for use in program-budget formulation.

MONTHLY TEAM WORKLOAD REPORT

MONTH________________ TEAM No.__________

ACTIVITY CODE (See Management Structure)	Backlog	New Cases	Cases Closed	Cases Reviewed	Manhours
1000. 11000 Counseling & Guidance					
1000. 12000 Protective Services					
1000. 13100 Direct Fund Assistance					
1000. 13200 Homemaker Services					
1000. 13300 Day Care Services					
1000. 21000 Shelter Care					
1000. 22000 Residential Treatment					
1000. 23000 Institutional Care					
1000. 24000 Foster Home Care					
1000. 25000 Adoption Services					
1000. 30000 Administration					
TOTALS					
REMARKS:					

TEAM WORKLOAD TREND CHART

Explanation of Chart

To illustrate how the team leader may use workload statistics to obtain a visual picture of progress, the following example of a team workload trend chart indicates a basic application.

A team is organized on January 1, and maintains workload statistics for the year, based upon the monthly totals derived from previously described Monthly Team Workload Reports. An annual data table can be developed as shown below (all data are arbitrary and for illustrative purposes only).

MONTH	BACKLOG (from prior month report)	NEW CASES	CASES CLOSED	CURRENT BACKLOG (End of Month)
Jan	0	100	10	90
Feb	90	150	50	190
Mar	190	120	100	210
Apr	210	130	90	250
May	250	125	110	265
Jun	265	100	120	245
Jul	245	90	110	225
Aug	225	85	125	185
Sep	185	110	105	200
Oct	200	120	100	220
Nov	220	100	125	195
Dec	195	80	70	205

From the preceding table, a trend chart, illustrated on page B-96, may be developed to provide a visual control over the workload of the team, showing the relationships among New Cases, Cases Closed, and Backlog.

Note the following points:

a. The general level of activity of the team is easily developed. Whether the workload is increasing or decreasing is shown clearly by the Backlog curve.

b. The general level of intake is indicated by the New Cases curve, as is the general rate of productivity of the team by the Cases

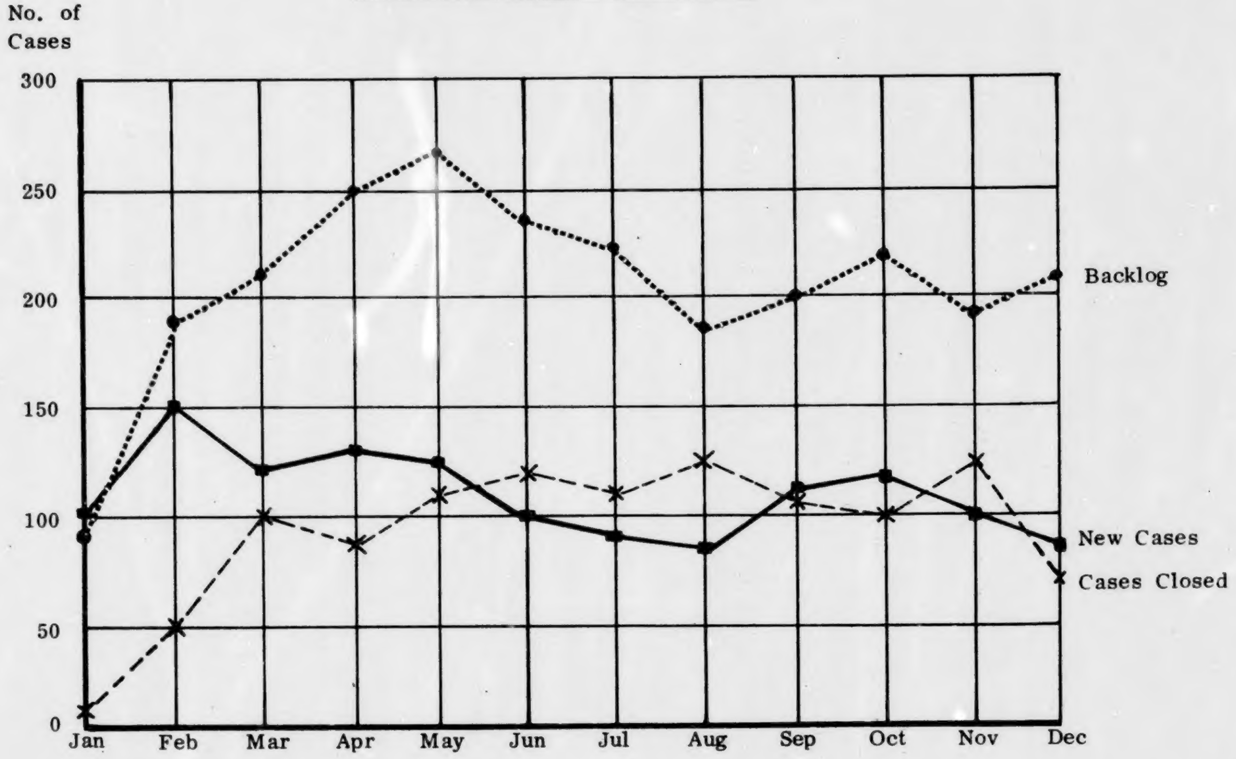
TEAM WORKLOAD TREND CHART. Explanation continued:

Closed curve.

c. When the general level of team intake and case processing are stabilized, the two curves, New Cases and Cases Closed, will remain level and relatively close together. The Backlog curve will reflect a similar trend level. When the curve for Cases Closed falls below the New Cases curve, it indicates a rising Backlog. If the Cases Closed curve is above the New Cases curve, the Backlog will drop.

By use of visual aids of this nature, the team leader can tell at a glance whether team intake and case processing are maintaining a normal level. If not, a review of staffing, or of case processing procedures, for example is indicated to bring the data into normal pattern.

TEAM WORKLOAD TREND CHART



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4. Systems to Improve Efficiency and Effectiveness of Operations

In this study of management systems, we have outlined and defined systems for overall coordination, and those for management information. Another category of systems for improving efficiency and effectiveness of work in progress encompasses special management actions aimed at improving the productivity of manpower by simplifying procedures, eliminating waste motion, reorganization to coordinate activities, or to make better skills available, and similar types of procedural changes.

Here again, the terminology varies according to the source. The terms "Work Measurement" and "Work Simplification" are well known, as is the term "Time Study". The Federal government has used the term "Performance Analysis" for essentially the same purposes. In the Federal agencies, two major separate programs have been developed--one called "Work Simplification" aimed at procedural or work-flow studies designed to eliminate bottlenecks in procedures, such as following the route of a vehicle through a repair shop, or of a document through a clerical processing center. The "Performance Analysis" program aimed at what is often called "Time Study" or "Work Measurement" in which processes of work done by individuals or groups of individuals are broken down into finite small operations, and these are timed by stop-watch or similar methods to determine if the process can be made less fatiguing to the worker, or if it can be accomplished in less time.

The objective of time study (work-measurement) systems is to determine a unit time in which certain work steps can be accomplished. The definition of the work unit (a finite count of work output) permits application of a time factor which, in turn, applied to the cost of the labor or machine time involved, may be used as a unit cost. In this way, factories may assign a cost to the manufacturing process, and this, with other costs of doing business, may be translated into a figure indicating the total cost of a product. Adding the necessary amount of profit, of course, provides the manager with the price at which goods must be sold to cover costs and profits.

Work simplification, work measurement, and similar procedural studies are useful in public agency operations as a means of maximizing manpower effort, reducing costs and maintaining efficiency and economy of operation. Unit cost data are used for budget development and to justify manpower requirements. Simplification of procedures smooths work flow and contributes to efficiency and effectiveness of services provided.

For purposes of the discussions of organization and procedural systems of managerial control, these shall be placed under the general headings of:

a. Organizational Controls. The grouping of individuals into function-oriented activities is an age-old method of systemetizing work by dividing it into effective harmonious units, integrating operations which are interrelated, avoiding duplication, and delegating management responsibility to subordinates.

b. Procedural Controls. Methods improvement, work simplification, motion study, and similar flow process studies are used to discover more effective working methods by systematic analysis of methods used in an operation, the use of available time, and the pace or speed at which actions take place. Training factory employees in specific methods of doing work, for example, has been proved to increase productivity.

c. Work Measurement. Detailed study and analysis of the amount of work output produced in a given time period. Work measurement may involve study of groups of individuals who produce a countable output, such as the number of pages produced by a typing pool; or it may involve on-the-job time study of individual worker output. The objective is to attain a standard of performance against which personnel performance may be measured, costs of production developed and manpower requirements determined.

a. Organizational Controls.

In modern usage, organization implies the grouping of individuals into "teams" in which many individuals do the same type of work, or work towards a common goal. Organization, in terms of management control, implies the categorization of work into logical groupings over which the manager can maintain control. Particularly in large organizations, the manager's "span of control" is limited by the physical limitations of his time, energy, and distance of movement. To assure continuing progress of all operations towards a common goal, managers divide operations into segments, assigning work to subordinate group leaders who become responsible to him for details of the work to be accomplished. The manager then is permitted to exercise control through coordination of the efforts of the various teams rather than being immersed in infinite details.

Among the first considerations in development of organizational structure is that of the traditional conflict between the freedom of the individual worker and the limitations imposed by managerial direction of work within certain prescribed policies or goals. Organization implies the delegation of responsibility and authority to subordinates who become "leaders" of groups of individual workers. The management of organizations demands selection of subordinates who can lead or manage others, and this consideration is not unimportant in development of organizational structure.

The basic considerations in developing an organization, or in reorganizations, are rather simple, yet most important. These include:

1. Span of Control. Size of the organization often determines to a great extent the number of sub-units which can be controlled by any one person.

Too many units of small size may prove costly in requiring excessive supervisory manpower, whereas too many individuals within an organizational unit may preclude proper supervision by the leader. The number of units under supervision of a manager places him in the position of having to direct operations through that many unit leaders. While there are no firm figures on how many units can be controlled by a single manager, since the number may vary according to size and complexity of operations, it is rarely feasible to extend a manager's "span of control" beyond seven or eight sub-units.

2. Delegation of Authority and Responsibility. One purpose of organization is to relieve the manager of the necessity to control and direct each detail of operations. Within the lowest level element of an organization, the worker is assigned certain duties and responsibilities which he is expected to carry on without close supervision. Similarly, the unit leader becomes responsible for the details of work produced by individuals under his supervision, and he reports to his next superior in terms of success of the group in achieving results desired. The unit leader assumes some of the superior's duties, making decisions on day-to-day problems, and directing work towards his objectives.

3. Communication. In every level of organization, the problem of communication between management and the individual worker is an important consideration. The manager must make clear to subordinates what he wishes to have them accomplish. Upward communication must exist to inform the manager of progress and to alert him to problems to which he must turn his attention. A major principle of good organization is that communications travel downwards and upwards only through each management level, in what is called in the military services "chain of command". Thus, the individual worker is expected to inform his immediate supervisor of accomplishments and problems rather than directing such communications to the higher level manager. The reason for this principle is obvious--the higher the level of management, the less time there is for myriad individual contacts. Further, unless communications travel through the unit supervisor at each level, he is unable to control properly the work assigned to him or to take timely corrective action when needed. Thus, the organizational structure must allow for means of communication commensurate with the functional groupings of work areas, and the organizational flow of communications must follow organizational lines to be effective.

4. Formality of Organization. Development of a formal organizational chart is an essential device to permit all within the organization to understand their roles in accomplishing the purpose of the organization. It fixes channels of communications clearly, and precludes misunderstanding of the scope of delegation of authority and responsibility. In addition to the formal chart, most organization control systems include development of a formal organizational manual which spells out in detail the responsibilities, functions and duties of each element of the organization. Also included are such details as job descriptions for individual positions within the organization, procedural guidance, and administrative matters related to the organization and to organizational planning and control.

The development of a formal organizational structure is a basic managerial control system designed to effect categorization of work into controllable packages. Organizations develop, grow, and reorganize along lines dictated by the objectives of the organization, the type of work being performed, the number of persons employed, the skills required or available, the capabilities of leadership of supervisory levels, and the availability of resources, among infinite considerations. Organizations are not static, and change more or less frequently in response to the influences of changing conditions and the desires of management for specific improvements.

In the team concept for social service delivery, the team structure is designed to accomplish the objectives of the organization with maximum effectiveness. The team organization is based upon a geographical service basis, the Division Chief controlling operations through a span of control of a few areas, each having a number of subordinate teams for service delivery. The definition of functions and responsibilities have been covered in the discussion on the organization of the Child Welfare Division.

Note that the organization recommended for the Child Welfare Division avoids unwieldy, top-heavy, hierarchical layering of supervision, permitting communications to be effected readily between team members, the team leader, and the agency manager.

b. Procedural Controls.

One most basic management concern is that of control of the flow of work and of the procedures involved in doing work. For this discussion, the term "methods improvement" seems most appropriate.

Virtually all efforts to produce a work product are influenced by the physical location and conditions under which work is performed. The location of desks in a child welfare team office is of importance in relation to the location and size of client waiting room space and considerations of privacy and movement of persons in the area. The movement of a client from one desk to another for various services involves time and route considerations. The handling of case files and location of file drawers must be considered in design of office layout, among other administrative service considerations.

One basic technique to study the ways in which work is affected by physical conditions is the "flow process chart". This is a detailed step-by-step listing and analysis of the flow of work showing points at which a work product is in process, is being transported, being inspected, delayed, or stored, and the time elements involved. Such studies show where work produced, or the services given, are delayed; where movements or actions are duplicated; how much time is used in processing against time lost in avoidable delays, etc.

Another type of study, usually called "motion study", is a detailed analysis of the movements of an individual in doing work. The location of the client in relation to the social worker's desk affects the worker's movements. Much time might be wasted in the processes of standing up and sitting down if the social worker's reference materials are located inconveniently.

The distinction between procedural studies and work measurement or time study should be understood. Procedural studies do not necessarily relate work output to cost. Improvements from procedural studies relate to increases in efficiency and do speed up productions, thus reducing costs, but the amount of dollar savings may not be derived simply from the procedural improvement. Determining the cost or savings involved comes from time-study analyses in which the time (personnel or machine time) to produce a single quantifiable work product can be related directly to the cost (labor or machine cost).

As a matter of fact, work measurement studies most usually require completion of time and motion studies or methods improvements before the time studies can be meaningful. For example, the method by which a factory worker assembles a piece of machinery may not be the most efficient way. Unless a motion or methods study precedes the time study of the process, the resultant cost per unit merely reflects the cost of the inefficiency. Time studies normally are made after the procedure has been improved.

There are a number of variations or types of work measurement systems:

1. Historical standards are developed by using records of work output produced in past periods. By totaling the productive manhours expended in the time period and dividing this by the number of work units produced, a relationship is derived which can be called a "performance standard", indicating the average number of manhours required to produce one work unit. As indicated on Chart B-2, following, this type of measurement is used principally when groups of individuals perform varying amounts and kinds of effort to produce a single work unit. (Work of a child welfare team is a typical example.) Note that historical standards indicate only what was done in the past--these often do not indicate what could have been done under more efficient methods.

2. The direct measurement method (direct time-study of individual movements) is developed through use of stop-watch analysis of detailed movements. Usually, trained industrial engineer skills are needed to make such studies, and this type of measurement is useful generally in repetitive type work such as in factory assembly work, where one individual performs a limited number of actions. (In social service work, it would appear that this type of measurement would be applicable to such administrative support activities as typing pools, files maintenance, direct payment activities (cashier services), etc.)

3. The use of pre-determined standards is a derivative of the direct measurement method. Generally, this process makes use of pre-published tables of time elements recorded in other studies for certain typical small elements or

CHART B-2

TYPES OF WORK MEASUREMENT

TYPE	DEVELOPED BY	ADVANTAGE	DISADVANTAGE	MAJOR USE
HISTORICAL (STATISTICAL STANDARDS)	RECORDS OF PAST PERFORMANCE (AFTER WORK IS DONE)	• INEXPENSIVE • EASY TO RECORD AND DEVELOP	TELLS ONLY WHAT HAS BEEN DONE, NOT WHAT SHOULD HAVE BEEN DONE	OPERATIONS OF GROUPS OF PEOPLE
DIRECT MEASUREMENT (ENGINEERED STANDARDS)	TIME STUDY (WHILE WORK IS IN PROGRESS)	• ACCURATE • TELLS WHAT IS BEING DONE NOW	• COSTLY • REQUIRES TRAINED PEOPLE	INDIVIDUAL REPETITIVE TYPE JOBS
PRE-DETERMINED STANDARDS	USE OF PUBLISHED TABLES OF STANDARD ELEMENT TIMES (BEFORE WORK IS DONE)	• ONE THIRD AS EXPENSIVE AS ENGINEERED STANDARDS • TELLS WHAT CAN BE DONE BEFORE JOB UNDERTAKEN	REQUIRES TRAINED PEOPLE	DETERMINING STANDARD TIMES FOR NEW JOBS
STAFFING PATTERN	RECORDS OF PAST EXPERIENCE	EASY TO RECORD AND APPLY	USEFUL AS GUIDE ONLY	STAFFING GUIDES FOR UNMEASURABLE WORK AREAS

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movements. Average times of hand movements or arm movements, etc., are found in tables and these can be utilized to build a model to determine a performance standard for proposed methods of work. Its applicability in repetitive work is useful in planning new operations or in making comparisons of current methods with proposed changes. (Its usefulness in social service activities would be limited, again, to administrative-type repetitive actions.)

4. Staffing patterns, or authorized allowances of personnel, are common in most governmental service-type agencies in which repetitive work or measurement of times to do work is difficult or not meaningful (e.g. a fireman on standby basis produces no relatable work output unless a fire ensues). Generally, some sort of work unit is developed against which to judge manpower requirements. In staffing patterns for firehouses, to continue the example, the experience factor of the actual number and types of fires occurring during a year might be indicative of the number of firemen required to staff the local firehouse. The staffing pattern provides an approximation related to actual past experience, and often represents the only practical gauge under given circumstances.

c. Work Measurement.

The manager's use of work measurement systems as a means of assuring effectiveness and efficiency in operations can be an important factor in improvement of services. The essential principles outlined on Chart B-3, following, are:

1. First, a review is made to define specifically what work output, or area of work effort, is to be measured.

2. Of the many work areas in an organization, some are susceptible to work measurement in that a countable output is present. Some work areas, however, such as general administrative duties, emergency services, legal services, and other non-repetitive work, may not be measurable in a meaningful way. Thus measurement, when conducted, is confined to "measurable" work areas.

3. Selecting and defining carefully the work product or work unit is essential. The work unit must be a quantitative item which describes the work done, and is the result of efforts to produce it. In child welfare services, an action completed, such as placement of a child in a foster home, might be a countable work unit. As indicated in the management structure for the child welfare organization, one possible common work unit for all activities appears to be when a case is closed and filed. The work unit "Cases Closed" is understandable, countable and reflects effort. Even though some cases take longer times and involve more effort than others, the average time to effect an action can be used as a standard or gauge to indicate expected average performance.

4. Based upon the type of work to be counted and timed, the manager must select the appropriate method for measuring the effort. Obviously, social service delivery lends itself more to historical standards development than to

CHART B-3

the 7 STEPS

IN DEVELOPING A WORK MEASUREMENT SYSTEM

1. DEFINE THE "WORK AREAS"
2. DETERMINE WHICH WORK AREAS ARE MEASURABLE
3. DEFINE THE "WORK UNITS" FOR MEASURABLE AREAS
4. SELECT THE PROPER METHOD FOR MEASUREMENT;
    - *a. HISTORICAL DATA*
    - *b. TIME STUDY*
5. RECORD DATA AND DEVELOP A PERFORMANCE STANDARD
6. REVIEW AND ANALYZE ACTUAL PERFORMANCE VS. STANDARD
7. TAKE ACTION TO IMPROVE PERFORMANCE WHERE INDICATED

individual time study. But time study on parts of the process might be in order as well as using gross average data derived from daily work counts.

5. Developing a uniform and accurate record-keeping and reporting system to accumulate work count and time of effort is essential, for only through reasonable accuracy can a useful performance standard be developed indicating the normal (average) time it takes to produce the work unit being counted.

6. Once the standard of performance is developed (time to produce one work unit), the manager is in a position to review periodically the actual performance or production record against the standard. Deviations from the standard do not reveal why they occur, but provide the manager with a useful indicator that some process may be out of control. It is up to him to investigate and find out the reasons why.

7. Substandard performance against the standard provides management with the base to find ways to bring performance up to standard again. (Sometimes, of course, the investigation might result in revision and improvement of methods of doing the work, at which point a new standard evolves as a natural function of the exercise. This, too, represents another benefit of the system!)

5. Special Management Studies.

The discussions of the many and various systems for management control of operations would not be complete without consideration of the freedom of management to initiate special studies of areas of interest which may not fall within the general scope of Systems Analysis, Management Information Systems, or Procedural Studies.

The use of the Management Assistance Branch in the above types of managerial control systems can be expanded to cover new areas of interest aimed at improvement or more effective control of operations. Among the types of special actions which contribute to improvements might be:

a. Development of employee suggestion programs.

b. Establishment of formal training programs, training methods, professional career development, etc.

c. Initiation of "Zero Defects" types of programs aimed at improving individual performance of all personnel.

d. Special studies of public information media; development of publicity campaigns; community relationships, etc.

e. Special investigations or audits of complaints.

f. Development of Electronic Data Processing systems for operations amenable to the use of such devices.

g. Special studies of coordination with outside agencies, committee management, etc.

h. Conduct of training (in-service) courses, conferences, workshops, etc.

i. Studies of local wage and salary conditions as related to employees or to economic conditions of the community.

Generally, managers institute special studies generated by questions raised in other managerial systems. Dynamic management does not confine itself to specific or known controls or systems. The dynamic manager seeks constantly for new ideas, new relationships, new ways of solving problems, and does not confine his thinking to day-to-day routine.

The dynamic manager, also, expands his frame of reference with consideration not only of current operations, but looks forward with questions such as, "What will we be doing five, ten, or even twenty years from now, and how should we plan ahead for necessary changes"?

Similarly, management has a responsibility to temper its controls to fit the conditions existing. Management studies tend to seek not the one best way of doing things, but a number of alternative ways from which a reasonable choice may be made. Consideration always must be taken of reactions of employees to sudden changes or conditions, and reactions in community or political arenas. A sound decision based on facts gathered in a management study may be completely unacceptable because of community feelings or reactions, but unless a considered review of the facts and circumstances is made, no valid decision may be possible.

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New Perspectives on Child Welfare ►►►

This Report presents the findings of a three-year demonstration and research Project which addressed itself to

- foster family care;
- training of social work practitioners; and
- delivery of child welfare services.

In regard to foster family care, the Report traces and analyzes the past and present developments in this type of care in the United States; describes the characteristics and problems of a group of children in foster family care; and indicates the proportion of foster children now in placement who are likely to need foster care on a long-term basis.

In regard to the training of practitioners, the Report describes the undergraduate students who participated in the Project; discusses the types of learning students experienced as participants; compares educational attainments of these students with those in a graduate social work program; and evaluates the readiness of BA social workers for professional practice in child welfare.

The last section of the Report delineates the key issues that block the effective delivery of child welfare services; and provides illustrative materials which show how modern, dynamic management systems can be applied to delivery problems so as to meet better both the needs of the community and of consumers of service. The child welfare team model as proposed by the Project has important implications for the education of social workers, as well as for the improvement of services to families and children.

Black adoption as it relates to foster family care is also included in the Report as well as a selected bibliography.

The conceptual framework for the Project and for presenting its findings is the interrelationship of program, staffing and delivery system to bring about quality child welfare services to all children who need them.

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